

# The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

*Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine*

EDITED IN CO-OPERATION WITH A

COMMITTEE OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

ALBERT E. MCKINLEY, MANAGING EDITOR

Published with the Endorsement of the American Historical Association

Volume XXIV  
Number 4

PHILADELPHIA, APRIL, 1933

\$2.00 a year  
30 cents a copy

## CONTENTS

	PAGE
The National Archives Building, by T. P. Martin - - - -	177
Report of Progress of the Investigation of the Social Studies in the Schools, by Prof. A. C. Krey - - - - -	179
Legal Requirements for the Teaching of Civics, by Prof. D. C. Shilling	181
The New Course in European History in New York City High Schools, by Dr. H. D. A. Donovan - - - - -	186
Technocracy, by Frances N. Ahl - - - - -	192
World History for This International Age, by H. C. Fenn - -	193
Ancient History via Main Street, by H. L. Farr - - - -	200
Present Trends and Current Practices in the Teaching of the Social Studies in the Elementary School, by M. Harden and C. Scranton	201
Social Attitudes and the Social Sciences in the Junior High School, by N. R. Hunt - - - - -	210
Two Class Projects in Medieval History, by Florence Bernd -	217
Editor's Note - - - - -	231

Recent Happenings in the Social Studies, by Dr. H. E. Wilson, 219; Book Reviews, edited by Profs. H. J. Carman and J. B. Brebner, 222; Recent Historical Publications, listed by Dr. C. A. Coulomb, 231; Historical Articles in Current Periodicals, listed by Dr. L. F. Stock, 234.

*Published monthly, except June, July, August and September, by McKinley Publishing Co., 1021 Filbert St., Philadelphia, Pa.*  
Copyright, 1933, McKinley Publishing Co. Entered as second-class matter, October 26, 1909, at Post-Office  
at Philadelphia, Pa., under act of March 3, 1879.

Additional entry as 2nd Class Matter at the Post-Office at Menasha, Wis. Printed in U.S.A.

---



---

## History for Citizenship

Hamm, Bourne, and Benton's

### A UNIT HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

(Eleventh or twelfth year) "To the modern teacher it is a real find, for from its interesting cover to its fine index, it is a fascinating presentation of those factors which explain the problems of the twentieth century."—

*V. M. Kopka, Sacramento High School*

Wirth-Thompson's

### A HISTORY OF AMERICAN PROGRESS

Just off the press. For junior high school or corresponding grades. Specifically prepared to meet teaching difficulties experienced by most teachers in the classroom. Unit organization based on sensible and natural divisions of the subject matter. Emphasis on visual education and pupil activity. New *Time Charts* for each period to develop a sense of time.

---



---

## D. C. HEATH AND COMPANY

Boston      New York      Chicago      Atlanta  
San Francisco      Dallas      London

---



---

### The 1933 Edition of ELSON'S MODERN TIMES AND THE LIVING PAST

SINCE its publication ten years ago this history for secondary schools has grown steadily in popularity—an eloquent tribute to its sound qualities and the engaging charm of its style.

ONE of the outstanding features of the new edition is the account of the World War and its after effects—all freshly re-written in the light of later events and thought.

A NEW chapter discusses Recent Events of the last ten years, such as: the great problems of Ireland, India, and Egypt; the Treaty of Locarno; Reparations and War Debts; Danzig and the Polish Corridor; the Disarmament Conference; Turkey and Mustafa Kemal; Italy; Russia and Communism, etc.

Complete Book .....\$2.40  
Part One. From the Earliest Times to the  
Reformation .....\$1.32  
Part Two. From the Reformation to the Present  
Time ..... 1.48  
Workbooks: \$0.72; \$0.40; \$0.48

---

### AMERICAN BOOK COMPANY

New York    Cincinnati    Chicago    Boston    Atlanta

For Every High School Library

### SEMPLE'S AMERICAN HISTORY AND ITS GEOGRAPHIC CONDITIONS

Revised by

CLARENCE FIELDEN JONES

*Professor of Economic Geography  
Clark University*

\$3.00

This book defines the relationship between historical movements in the United States and the natural environment as the stage on which history unfolds.

---

### HOUGHTON MIFFLIN CO.

Boston    New York    Chicago    Dallas    Atlanta    San Francisco

# There is a Map for Every Purpose

*In McKinley's Series of Desk Outline Maps*

## LIST OF MCKINLEY'S DESK OUTLINE MAPS

*Double Size, (Size A): 10 x 15 in.; \$1.30 a 100; 37 cts. for an envelope of 20 maps.*

*Large Size, (Size B): 7½ x 10 in.; 65 cts. a 100; 23 cts. for an envelope of 20 maps.*

*Small Size, (Size C): 5½ x 7½ in.; 40 cts. a 100; 18 cts. for an envelope of 20 maps.*

Carriage extra.

### Skeleton Outline Maps

#### Coast Lines and Political Divisions

81 a-b-c The World (no boundary lines).

82 a-b-c Europe (boundaries of 1921).

83 a-b-c Asia.

84 a-b-c Africa.

85 a-b-c North America.

86 a-b-c South America.

87 a-b-c Australia.

88 a-b-c United States (no state lines).

#### Maps with Stippled Water Area

71 a-b The World (Mercator's Projection).

72 a-b Europe.

73 a-b Asia.

74 a-b Africa.

75 a-b North America.

76 a-b South America.

77 a-b Australia.

78 a-b United States.

#### Geographical & Historical Desk Maps

100 a-b The World (Mercator's Projection).

101 a-b Europe.

102 a-b Asia.

103 a-b Africa.

104 a-b North America.

105 a-b South America.

106 a-b Australia.

107 a-b Pacific Ocean.

108 a-b The World Divided at 60° East long.

109 a- Eastern Hemisphere

110 a- Western Hemisphere

#### The United States

175 a-b-c The United States (State boundaries and physical features).

176 a-b-c United States (State boundaries only).

#### The United States in Three Sections

177 a-b-c Eastern United States (east of Mississippi).

178 a-b-c Mississippi Valley.

179 a-b-c Pacific Coast and Plateau States.

180 -b- Pacific Coast and Plateau States (without detail).

#### Sections of United States and North America

185 a-b-c New England.

182 -b- New England (without detail).

186 -b- Coast of New England (for settlements).

187 a-b-c Middle Atlantic States.

183 -b- Middle Atlantic States (without detail).

195 -b- Middle States Settlements.

188 a-b-c South Atlantic States.

184 -b- South Atlantic and Gulf States.

189 -b- Coast of Southern States (for early settlements).

194 a-b- Eastern Virginia (for Civil War).

190 a-b- Mississippi Valley, Northern section.

181 -b- Mississippi Valley, Northern Section (without detail).

191 a-b- Northeastern Mississippi Valley.

192 a-b- Northwestern Mississippi Valley.

193 a-b- Southern Mississippi Valley and Texas.

171 -b- Southwestern United States.

232 -b-c Cuba.

170 a-b- Gulf of Mexico, Panama, etc.

172 a-b- West Indies.

173 a-b- Canada.

#### Europe and its Sub-Divisions

101 a-b- Europe (physical features).

89 a-b-c Europe (boundaries of 1914).

82 a-b-c Europe (boundaries of 1921).

111 a-b-c Europe (central and southern parts).

112 a-b- Central Europe (Charlemagne's Empire).

114 a-b- Baltic Lands.

115 a-b-c Southeastern Europe and Eastern Mediterranean.

120 a-b-c British Isles.

121 a-b-c England.

122 -b-c Scotland.

123 a-b-c Ireland.

124 a-b-c France and the Netherlands (with England).

125 a-b-c Germany.

126 -b- Austria-Hungary and the Danube Valley.

127 a-b- Russia.

128 -b-c Spain.

130 a-b-c Greece and Aegean Sea.

132 a-b-c Italy.

#### Ancient History and Special Subjects

113 a-b-c Mediterranean World.

134 a-b- Roman Empire.

133 -b- Central Italy (early Roman History).

142 -b-c Ancient Rome (City).

131 -b- Greece (Continental).

143 -b-c Ancient Athens.

135 a-b-c Eastern World (Alexander's Empire).

138 a-b-c Palestine.

140 -b-c Egypt.

148 a-b- India.

149 a-b- Eastern China and Japan.

The above list does not include State Maps, World War Maps or the Extra Size Maps (size 15" x 20").

Samples and information regarding any of our maps will be gladly sent upon request.

## MCKINLEY PUBLISHING COMPANY

1021 Filbert St., Philadelphia

## A Textual and Pictorial Panorama of the **WHOLE WORLD**

•  
“A  
very  
teachable  
book”  
•



*Photo by De Cou from Ewing Galloway*

•  
“The best  
yet  
published  
for  
secondary  
school use”  
•

### HAYES - MOON - WAYLAND'S **WORLD HISTORY**

With the history of “Western” civilization it correlates the history of China, and of Japan, of India and of America, including not only the Mayas, Aztecs, and Incas, and Colonial America, but the revolutions in Latin America, and the rise of the United States from independence to world power.

Facts only, gained from careful research, have furnished the materials for the story. These facts have been woven into a narrative that is dramatic without being sensational, and interesting without any sacrifice of authenticity.

\$2.20

### THE MACMILLAN COMPANY

New York

Boston

Chicago

Dallas

Atlanta

San Francisco



# The Historical Outlook

*Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine*

Volume XXIV  
Number 4

PHILADELPHIA, APRIL, 1933

\$2.00 a year  
30 cents a copy

## The National Archives Building<sup>1</sup>

By THOMAS P. MARTIN

*Assistant Chief, Division of Manuscripts, Library of Congress*

EDITOR'S NOTE.—On February 20, 1933 President Hoover laid the cornerstone of the edifice, using the following words: "Devoutly the Nation will pray that [this building] may endure forever, the repository of records of yet more glorious progress in the life of our beloved country. I now lay the cornerstone of the Archives Building and dedicate it in the name of the people of the United States."

The National Archives Building now under construction at Washington, D.C., is almost *un fait accompli*. The site has been determined, the plans have been drawn, the foundations have been laid, and the contract for the superstructure has been signed.<sup>2</sup> Within 720 days from receipt of notice to proceed, the contractor is to deliver to the United States Government the building completed at a cost of \$5,284,000. That is to say, completed for present needs. The exterior walls, the administrative offices, and about half the stack space will be provided. In time the construction of stacks in inside courtyards will bring the total archive-shelving capacity of the building to 10,000,000 cubic feet. The present stage of the work and the general outlines of the building are shown by the illustration presented herewith.

Influences coming down from some years in the past determined the location of the National Archives Building within the Triangle which extends from Fifteenth Street between Pennsylvania Avenue and Constitution Avenue (along the north side of the Mall) to the Capitol; and this location has been shifted towards the apex and finally to the old Central Market site, a quadrangular space which will not permit expansion after the present building has been filled. It was practically impossible to secure the erection of a National Archives Building anywhere else. Future generations will have to solve the problem of expansion to suit themselves.

Though the National Archives Building was only one and not the largest or the most important of

the several immense buildings of the Triangle, the Treasury Department has given the planning and construction an amount of consideration which will gratify those who must regret the unfortunate selection of a limited site. At an early date it sent Mr. Louis Simon of the office of the supervising architect to Europe to study the various archival establishments there and later requested certain departments and establishments to name representatives to serve on an advisory committee. This committee consisted of Mr. Simon, the chairman, of the Treasury Department; Mr. Tyler Dennett of the State Department; Brigadier General James F. McKinley of the Adjutant General's Office of the War Department; Mr. Ebert K. Burlew of the Interior Department; Mr. J. L. Baity, Assistant Comptroller General of the General Accounting Office; and Dr. J. F. Jameson, Chief of the Manuscript Division of the Library of Congress.

The advisory committee had meetings, fifteen or twenty, running over a little more than a year; and a sub-committee consisting of Dennett, McKinley and Burlew made a survey of the various groups of national archives in terms of cubic feet: (1) From the earliest dates to 1861; (2) from the beginning of 1861 to April, 1917; and (3) from the beginning of April, 1917, to the present, which at that time was 1930. This survey "disclosed facts hitherto unknown and wholly unexpected." The shelving or stack space required for the files already in existence amounted to no less than the 10,000,000 cubic feet mentioned above; and the present rate of growth was suggested by the fact that a date early in 1917 just about halved the entire collection. With these facts in mind, the Committee deliberated on requirements and made what is known as the Report of November 11, 1930, to the Secretary of the Treasury, "for the guidance of the architect in preparing preliminary sketches for the building." Thereafter further conferences were held with the architects, until the general out-



lines of the building took the form shown in the illustration mentioned above.

A few days before the final report of November 11, 1930, was written, the advisory committee received a letter of instructions from the Secretary of the Treasury (dated November 1) outlining the procedure which the committee should follow. Because it is to occupy a conspicuous position in the Triangle, facing Constitution Avenue and the Mall and extending back to Pennsylvania Avenue, the National Archives Building, which the orators tell us will house the service records "of every hero on land and sea since the dawn of American history," must present a completed, artistic appearance and also admit deferred construction on approximately half the stack space. The administrative portion must be adequate for the operation of the building when all the stack units have been completed and filled. The administrative space should be assembled as closely as possible for efficient administration, and be so located as to provide direct and immediate access to the stacks.

To fill this administrative space, which obviously would be larger than present needs would require, the Secretary of the Treasury suggested, in his letter of November 1, that "active files, together with the necessary number of clerks," might be placed there. This suggestion was promptly repelled by the committee, who declared,

"The introduction of extraneous activities and of large groups of workers, who would be under the administrative control of other officers, would, it is believed, create additional risks to the safe cus-

tody of the papers entrusted to the Archives administration, and would present problems of control which would be fruitful sources of friction." The danger of creating administrative space inviting the intrusion of active files and clerks from other organizations doubtless influenced the advisory committee in the drafting of its report and in its subsequent conferences with the architects; and it may influence the recommendations of the committee to frame the bill for administration, but discussion of the latter question lies outside the scope of this paper.

It will be observed, therefore, by reference to the illustration herewith, that the National Archives Building is planned to conform to the specifications laid down by the Secretary of the Treasury in his letter of November 1, 1930, written under the conditions imposed by those who had previously planned the Triangle. It is to present a completed artistic appearance, in the form of a huge rectangle but with the inside courtyards invisible from the streets. The front, main entrances, waiting room, lobby, and administrative portions or spaces, together with long passages and corridors leading to other parts of the building occupy the whole of the long side facing Constitution Avenue. The principal administrative and secretarial offices will be on the first floor, easily accessible to the public; and the search rooms both official and public will be on the second floor. Behind the lobby and within the rectangular courtyard is a semi-circular exhibition hall which will be equipped with cases for the display of materials to the public. This will have

both first and second floors and will be flanked with corridors leading to a passage way to the rear of the building. The stacks are ranged around the ends and rear side of the building; and each section is provided with offices for section chiefs, their staffs, and the section catalogues.

It will be observed that the stacks and the exhibition hall have no windows in the walls. Daylight is to be excluded from all storage spaces, and artificial light will be used only when necessary. The air will be conditioned throughout the building. Heavy removable wire partitions extending from floor to ceiling and fire walls at proper intervals in the stack space will be used to safeguard and protect the papers.

The National Archives Building will, of course, be fully equipped with various special departments for arranging, cleaning, repairing, mounting and binding papers; also, for the various kinds of copying or duplication, cataloguing, indexing, etc.; particular care was taken to provide ample quarters for photographic work. There will be no restaurant in the building.

The general information section will be located in the public, non-official search room, with a li-

brary of reference works, particularly official publications, close at hand. For official purposes, there will be another general search room and some smaller rooms, where extended official searches can be made. "Separate rooms for individual searchers will not be provided." The geographic section is expected to be near the library and information office.

This is about as much as can be said briefly and generally about the National Archives Building, until the superstructure is completed. The great defect is in the limited building space rather than in the building itself. As for the building, it will be adapted to its uses to a greater extent perhaps than either the architects or its occupants can foresee for many years. It is a good beginning, and historians having occasion to resort to it personally or by correspondence have reason to be thankful that in future the most precious of the Government's records will not only be preserved but be given adequate care and be serviced effectively, subject to necessary limitations, to the people.

<sup>1</sup> Read at the American Historical Association meeting at Toronto, Canada, December 27, 1932.

<sup>2</sup> Work on the superstructure began in December, 1932, after this paper was written.

## Report of Progress of the Investigation of the Social Studies in the Schools

By PROFESSOR A. C. KREY, *University of Minnesota*

It would probably be difficult for most members of the Commission to realize that they are drawing near the end of their labors. Popular belief to the contrary, the last year is the hardest, not only for those members who are at the present moment working with concentrated energy upon their individual assignments, but for all members of the Commission as they face the task of crystallizing their long study into specific recommendations. For this is the fifth and last year of the Investigation.

I need no longer, as I have done during the past four years, refer to a report entirely in the future. The first two volumes of the report have already appeared, and two of the tests prepared for the Investigation have likewise been published. The present meeting marks another step in the completion of the Commission's report. In a sense, we are privileged to share in the unveiling of the third volume, if that is not mixing metaphors too much.

Perhaps, since a portion of the report is already issued and is no longer entirely a matter of the future, I may be permitted a few moments retro-

spection. The preparation of the plan for this Investigation was begun in 1925. How chastening it is to those who would confidently predict the future of human affairs even for a few years forward to turn back the clock to that year! Who would have foretold with assurance then that we were to witness an era of prosperity, in which nearly every one had the illusion of being a financial genius, such as the year 1928 and 1929 saw? And who in those years would have foretold with equal assurance that two or three years thence economic conditions would be such as to beggar men whose fortunes in 1929 ran into tens and even hundreds of millions and render even the proudest financial institutions objects of governmental relief? Yet both conditions have come to pass within the period of this study. This Commission has had the opportunity to consider the problems of society both in a period of unexampled prosperity and of equally unparalleled depression. It has seen society give lavishly for education and seen society in many portions of the land deny the teachers a living wage—any wage at all in some instances. It



has seen education regarded as the golden privilege of all youth and, later, as a convenience to divert the idle during the hours of the day. If it were some plot of destiny to force those charged with the preparation of youth for the problems of the world to gaze upon the whole gamut of social experience and attitude, no better period could have been chosen than these five years. True, there might have been added the touch of a world war, but that was unnecessary, for all the members of the Commission recalled that period of intense passion only too vividly. Few periods of history could be found to show the possibilities of organized society for good and evil, for true nobility and unrelieved sordidness, so fully in so short a time.

If it was important that the Commission be aware of the full range of social emotion and the changed standards of value which accompanied the shift from one extreme to the other, it was equally important that it should have as detailed and extensive knowledge of society as possible. The composition of the Commission itself, by including leading scholars in every field of social science—and this means educational research and administration also—was expected to insure this wider knowledge. But Fate apparently was taking no chances even in this respect. In the years in which this Commission has been at work it has been aided successively by the reports of various national surveys and investigations conducted on a scale never witnessed before. The enforcement of law, housing conditions, child welfare, medical care, comparative civic training, the 1930 census, United State Secondary School Survey, of national teacher training and cost of education, Economic Trends, and, most recently, Social Trends, have all been reported during the years. No society has ever been so thoroughly inventoried and revealed, not only in its material equipment, but in the operation of its social forces. And, lest the Commission overlook something of the more sordid side of life, a number of investigations of mal-practice and corruption in business, politics, and law have been conducted by the national government and by the State of New York during these years. All of this material is available to the members of the Commission and is being levied upon for whatever help it may offer to the work of the Commission.

The appreciation and appraisal of this vast accumulation of records is a staggering task for even well-trained scholars. We can only hope that the Commission includes members of unlimited scholarly capacity who can embrace it all without losing a true perspective and balanced outlook on life. We hope the Commission will be able to see our society whole despite this great mass of detail—all the more accurately because of the detail. We hope that,

recognizing the demands of the growing youth in the schools, it will outline a program which will prepare that youth more adequately to grapple with the problems of society than we ourselves were prepared. That the Commission is fully aware of the challenge is certain, and that it meets the challenge with courage to do its best is equally certain. That its best will be equal to the task is a hope which it can only share with you.

How fully the Commission has planned its work to meet all phases of the problem may be indicated by the tentative list of the parts of its report. The first three are already published, the third appearing today, the rest to follow somewhat in the order in which they are listed.

1. *A Charter for the Social Sciences in the Schools* by Charles A. Beard, formerly Professor of Politics, Columbia University. This is a comprehensive statement of the objectives in social science teaching as agreed upon by members of the Commission after two years of deliberation.

2. *An Introduction to the History of the Social Sciences*, by Henry Johnson, Professor of History, Teachers College, Columbia University. A Historical study of European and American thought and practice in the teaching of the social sciences.

3. *Citizens' Organizations and the Civic Training of Youth*, by Bessie Louise Pierce, Associate Professor of American History, University of Chicago. This report will contain the statements of the wishes of various adult groups on the subject of the training for effective and desirable membership in society.

4. *The Pupil's Approach to the Understanding of Society*, by Truman L. Kelley, Professor of Education, Harvard University, and A. C. Krey, Professor of History, University of Minnesota. This will embody a description of the various tests which the committee has made and a study of the performance of these tests through trial stages. It will also contain a critical appraisal of other tests not sponsored by the Investigation.

5. *Services of Geography to the Social Sciences*, by Isaiah Bowman, Director, American Geographic Society of New York, with special studies by Rose Clark, Nebraska Wesleyan University; Edith Parker, University of Chicago; and R. D. Calkins, Central State Teachers College, Michigan.

6. *Education in an Industrial Age*, by George S. Counts, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, and Charles A. Beard. This will be a more detailed treatment of some of the points mentioned in Beard's "A Charter for the Social Sciences in the Schools," and will be designed for a larger audience of school administrators and people generally concerned with school problems.



7. *The Social Sciences as School Subjects*, by Rolla M. Tryon, Professor of the Teaching of History, University of Chicago. This will be a descriptive, critical study of various practices which schools have followed in organizing social science programs.

8. *Methods of Instruction in the Social Sciences*, by Ernest Horn, Professor of Education, University of Iowa. This will be a study of methods of instruction and, like Mr. Tryon's report, will deal with the problems from the elementary school through the junior college.

9. *Civic Training in the United States*, by Charles E. Merriam, Professor of Political Science, University of Chicago. This report will give the results of Mr. Merriam's study and thinking on the important problem of training for citizenship in the more specifically political sense.

10. *School Administration and Social Science Teaching*, by Jesse H. Newlon, Director, Lincoln School, Teachers College, Columbia University. This report will round out a series of studies on the school administrator's place in the problems of the Investigation.

11. *The Selection and Training of the Teacher*, by William C. Bagley, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University; Guy Stanton Ford, Professor of History and Dean of the Graduate School, University of Minnesota; and others. A study of the American teacher of the so-

cial sciences, and suggestions with regard to selection and training.

12. *Freedom of Teaching in the Schools*, by Howard K. Beale, formerly Professor of History at Bowdoin College. A historical calendar of this subject in United States from colonial times to the present.

13. *Social Ideas of American Educators*, by Merle Curti, Professor of History at Smith College. A study of the ideas, theories, and assumptions underlying the writing and thought of American educational leaders from early times to the present, with special reference to the recent period.

14. *Experimentation with Social Science Reading Materials*, by C. H. Judd, Head of Department of Education and Dean of the School of Education, University of Chicago. This book will include observations based on experiments in reading made among junior high school students, and the reaction to social science material.

15. *Recommendations of the Commission*. The publication of this, the final volume in the series, is planned for December, 1933. This volume will contain the conclusions of the Commission after its several years of deliberation, investigation, and experimentation. It will provide specific guidance for the formulation of a complete social science program for the schools. Representing the collective opinions of the best authorities, it will unquestionably serve as the basis for the teaching of the social sciences in the schools of the United States.

## Legal Requirements for the Teaching of Civics

By PROFESSOR D. C. SHILLING

Western State Teachers College, Kalamazoo, Michigan

### WAR LEGISLATION

The school laws of two or three generations ago made provision for the teaching of the three "R's" in the public schools. Slowly but inevitably other branches of study were added to this almost sacred trinity. Among the twentieth century additions are physical education and, what for the lack of a better term, we may denominate citizenship. Both of these phases of our public education were receiving a considerable amount of attention prior to the World War, but that event greatly accelerated the demand for instruction in physical well-being and in training for citizenship. Our selective conscription records of 1917-18 revealed a far greater degree of physical and mental unfitness than we suspected possible in a land symbolized by the

"little red schoolhouse." While there is a sort of congenital relationship between the physical and the mental attributes of citizenship, the present discussion must confine itself to the latter.

No one whose sands of life have run one-half of the Psalmist's allotment will be surprised to learn of a considerable quantity of war legislation, and immediate post-war legislation calculated to develop love of country and a lofty appreciation of the duties and the responsibilities of the individual citizen. This decade placed new limitations upon the privileges of resident aliens, as witnessed by the closing of various positions and the suffrage to all save full-fledged citizens.

The spirit of the times may be reconstructed in part by noting the legislation of three or four

states widely separated and unlike in many respects. A Nevada act approved March 21, 1917 (fifteen days prior to our entry into the war) reads in part as follows, "It is hereby made the duty of all school officers in control of public high schools in the State of Nevada to provide for courses of instruction designed to prepare the pupils for the duties of citizenship, both in time of peace and in time of war. Such instruction shall include: (1) Physical training designed to secure the health, vigor, and physical soundness of the pupil. (2) Instruction relative to the duties of citizens in the service of their country. It shall be the aim of such instruction to inculcate a love of country and a disposition to serve the country effectively and loyally."<sup>1</sup> In Maryland a statute of 1920 states that it shall be the duty of those in charge of "any grammar school, high school, preparatory school, college or university . . . giving an academic course, who have morning, afternoon or evening exercises, or other gatherings, to open such exercises or gatherings, on at least one day of such [sic] school week, whether morning, afternoon or evening, with the singing of the 'Star-Spangled Banner.' Provided that nothing in this Act shall apply to professional schools."<sup>2</sup>

Ten days after our declaration of war in 1917, New York by law required instruction in patriotism and citizenship. Its preface states that "in order to promote a spirit of patriotic and civic service and obligation and to foster in the children of the state moral and intellectual qualities which are essential in preparing to meet the obligations of citizenship in peace or in war, the regents of the university of the state of New York shall prescribe courses of instruction in patriotism and citizenship, to be maintained and followed in all of the schools of the state." The act applies to private as well as public schools. "All pupils attending such schools over the age of eight years, shall attend upon such instruction." The commissioner of education may withhold state funds from any school district which fails to comply with this act.<sup>3</sup>

As a sort of preface to an act, a wartime legislature of the state of Washington declared that: "The study of American history and American government is hereby declared to be indispensable to good citizenship and an accurate understanding of our institutions and a proper appreciation of national ideals."

#### CIVIC INSTRUCTION IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Since the elementary schools offer the greatest opportunity to reach the masses one is not surprised to learn that they are the most widely used legal vehicle in the dissemination of the principles of democratic government, and duties and princi-

ples of citizenship. To quote Dr. Keesecker, of the Office of Education, "It may be said that the State control over the subjects to be taught in the elementary schools is primarily by legislative prescription while the State control over high school curricula is by State board of education or State department regulation."<sup>4</sup>

The statutes of a great majority of the states, and the constitutions of a few, make provisions for the giving of instruction in civic materials in the elementary school. While there is some variation in the content, scope, and the placing of responsibility concerning such courses, there is more of similarity. A few samples chosen at random will verify these affirmations.

Iowa requires "each public and private school . . . to teach the subject of citizenship in all the grades."<sup>5</sup> A Connecticut statute of 1930 states that "The duties of citizenship, including the knowledge of the form of national, state, and local governments, shall be taught in all elementary schools, both public and private, as a regular branch of study, to pupils above the fourth grade." A further provision makes it the duty of parents or those in *loco parentis* to bring the children up in some lawful and honest employment, and to instruct them or cause them to be instructed "in citizenship including a study of town, state and federal governments."<sup>6</sup>

Maine stipulates that the youth shall be taught "the cost, the object, and the principles of our government, the great sacrifices of our forefathers, the important part taken by the Union Army in the war of eighteen hundred sixty-one to eighteen hundred sixty-five, and to teach them to love, honor, and respect the flag of our country that cost so much and is so dear to every American citizen."<sup>7</sup>

Patriotic exercises are required in the common graded and high schools of Minnesota at least one day per week, consisting of "subjects and exercises tending and calculated to encourage and inculcate a spirit of patriotism in the pupils and students."<sup>8</sup> It is made the duty of teachers in Tennessee to teach the constitution of the United States and Tennessee for the "purpose of instructing all the children as to their privileges and duties under said constitutions, and for the promotion of good citizenship."<sup>9</sup>

Community civics is required in all of the public schools of Maryland.<sup>10</sup> In Virginia "civil government" is mandatory in the elementary grades of every public school.<sup>11</sup> An act of the legislature of Texas provides that the "daily program of every public school shall be so formulated . . . as to include at least ten minutes for the teaching of intelligent patriotism including the needs of the State and Federal governments, the duty of the citizen

to the State and the obligation of the State to the citizen." Failure to comply with this provision carries a maximum fine of \$500, or removal from office, or both.<sup>12</sup>

The more formal instruction in civics begins with the upper grades of the elementary school, usually the eighth. However, several of the states prescribe the seventh grade for the beginning of the subject. Representative of the latter practice are Ohio, Illinois, and Rhode Island. Not infrequently such courses are carried through at least a part of the high school course. A very ambitious program is provided by the Indiana legislature. The course is to be given in "all public, private, and parochial schools" beginning with the sixth grade and "continuing through each grade to and including the twelfth."<sup>13</sup>

The content of these courses varies somewhat but the statute usually specifies the Constitution of the United States and that of the state. The Declaration of Independence is added by a small group of states of which Illinois, Minnesota, and Virginia are examples. The latter state includes the Virginia Bill of Rights, the Virginia Statute for Religious Freedom, and section fifty-eight of the constitution of the state. The pupil is required to pass a written examination in each of these great documents.<sup>14</sup> Arizona since 1925 requires instruction in the "sources and history of the Constitution of the United States and the State of Arizona, and in American institutions and ideals." One year of such instruction is mandatory "in the grammar grades and the high school respectively."<sup>15</sup>

By legislation of 1927, Michigan requires "all public, private, parochial, and denominational schools" to give "regular courses of instruction in the Constitution of the United States, in the Constitution of the State of Michigan, and in the history and present form of the civil government of the United States, the State of Michigan, and the political subdivisions and municipalities of the State of Michigan."<sup>16</sup> Two years after the close of the World War, Massachusetts required the teaching of American history and civics, including the Constitution of the United States in all public elementary and high schools "for the purpose of promoting civic service and a greater knowledge thereof, and of fitting the pupils, morally and intellectually for the duties of citizenship."<sup>17</sup> In the provisions of a similar act in Arkansas, the legislators advised the pedagogues "that a mere recital of dates and events" is to be avoided.<sup>18</sup>

#### HIGH SCHOOL TRAINING IN CIVICS

Attention was called earlier in this article to the fact that state control of the high school curriculum is, for the most part, indirect, coming from

the State Board of Education or the State Superintendent of Public Instruction. Consequently legislative prescriptions are somewhat rare in this field, and correspondingly greater power is delegated to the authorities mentioned above.

A law of Kentucky after prescribing a course in civics for the elementary school stipulates that it shall be continued in the high school "to an extent to be determined by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction."<sup>19</sup> This phrase is almost identical with that used in similar statutes by the legislatures of Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, Alabama, Illinois, Oregon, and California. Another group of states, of which Delaware, North Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, Idaho, Utah, and New Mexico may be cited, reserves both the content and the position of such courses in the curriculum to the State Board of Education.

However, the statutes of a few states are explicit both as to the content and the duration of the instruction in civics in the high school. Few, if any, are more definite than the 1931 Act of Michigan. It requires of all Michigan schools having twelve grades of work that "a one semester course of study of five recitations per week shall be given in civics, said course covering the form and functions of our federal and state governments and of counties, cities, and villages. Throughout the course the rights and responsibilities of citizens shall be stressed." It is made a misdemeanor to recommend any student for graduation who has not "successfully completed said course."<sup>20</sup> All public high schools of Texas are required to give a course in the constitutions of the United States and Texas, continuing for at least one-half hour each week of the school year, or its equivalent.<sup>21</sup>

A law of 1924 in South Carolina defines the contents of a course for the secondary schools, requires the student to pass a "satisfactory examination" upon the constitutions of the United States and of the state and to convince the "examining power of his or her loyalty thereto." Failure upon the part of the proper official to carry out this provision is sufficient cause for dismissal.<sup>22</sup> Arkansas and Washington boldly proclaim that graduation from any high school requires at least one full year's work in American history and civics. The penalty for its violation in Arkansas goes farther than the similar act of South Carolina, by adding that in case of a corporation it is sufficient grounds for revoking its charter.<sup>23</sup> California, Arizona, and Massachusetts also have legislative acts requiring the teaching of civics in the secondary schools.

#### CIVIC EDUCATION IN HIGHER INSTITUTIONS

Public opinion in several of the states has expressed itself as being unwilling to terminate the



training in the principles of government with the secondary school program. Accordingly, legislation has been enacted in such states requiring the continuance of these courses in the institutions of higher learning, particularly those supported by public funds. It is to be expected that such requirements should find a place in teacher training institutions, and to a lesser extent, in the state college and the state university. However the non-tax supported institutions are not immune from this type of legislation. In some instances they are directly included, but more frequently the control comes from accrediting and certifying these institutions.

The teacher training schools of Connecticut are required to offer courses in national, state, and local government and "concerning methods of teaching the same."<sup>24</sup> In South Carolina all colleges and universities, which are receiving any subsidy from the state, are required to give instruction in the "essentials of the Constitution of the United States, including the study of, and the devotion to American institutions and ideals." The act further provides that the instruction shall continue for at least one year, and that the passing of an examination upon this course and the loyalty clause, above mentioned, be required for graduation. The last two qualifications are mandatory of all who teach in the public schools of the state. Mention should be made that the loyalty clause is waived for foreign students in the colleges or universities.<sup>25</sup>

The State superintendent of public instruction in California determines the extent of courses of instruction in the "Constitution of the United States, including the study of American institutions and ideals" for the "State colleges, the universities, and the educational departments of state, municipal, and private institutions." Graduation from "any such school" requires the passing of an examination in this course.<sup>26</sup> The legal requirements in Oregon are strikingly similar to those of California.<sup>27</sup>

In Florida about the same end is reached but by a somewhat different procedure, by means of which the non-tax supported colleges aid in carrying out the provisions of the law. The passing of an examination in government is required for certificates to teach in the public schools. These examinations must be taken in Florida and are held in every county seat in June, September, and February. However, graduates of higher institutions of learning approved by the state board of education, and whose courses included six semester hours in American history and government including the Constitution of the United States are exempt. In a "Handbook for Teachers" issued by the state board of education it is recommended that the six hours

be taken in a "regular course in political science."<sup>28</sup>

Louisiana since 1926 requires the teaching of "the Constitutional systems of State and National government and the duties of citizenship" in all schools, colleges, and other educational institutions supported wholly or in part by funds from the state or its sub-divisions.<sup>29</sup> In addition to the Constitution of the United States, Minnesota requires the Declaration of Independence to be taught in the "educational departments of state and municipal institutions" the extent of which is left to the state commissioner of education.<sup>30</sup> Nevada in the early twenties went as far as any state has gone in legislating civics courses in higher educational institutions. Her act is not unlike those of other states in content but includes "all colleges, universities . . . and the Nevada School of Industry." The instruction is to continue through at least one year of college work, and the passing of an examination upon it is a prerequisite to the issuing of a certificate or diploma.<sup>31</sup>

Michigan by legislation of 1931 makes a four term hour course in civics mandatory in county normal training schools and requires all colleges receiving aid from the State to give six one-hour lectures, or its equivalent "in political science covering the form and functions of our federal and state government, and of counties, cities, and villages. Throughout said course the rights and responsibilities of citizenship shall be stressed." After June, 1933, "the successful completion" of said course is required for a diploma or degree from the institutions covered by the act.<sup>32</sup>

In Texas graduation from all colleges and universities supported by public funds must include a course in government given for "at least three fifty-minute periods per week for not less than twelve consecutive weeks or its equivalent if given in the summer session."<sup>33</sup> Utah since 1923 requires the teaching of the Constitution of the United States in "all colleges and universities in the state" the time and extent to be determined by the faculties of such institutions.<sup>34</sup>

#### COURSES IN AMERICANIZATION

One more phase of our subject remains to be discussed. During several generations the American free schools have been considered, and rightly so, a mighty factor in the assimilating process popularly known as the "melting pot." By the end of the second decade of the present century we had discovered a much higher degree of illiteracy than was popularly suspected. This was true of both native and foreign stocks. Accordingly since the World War great emphasis has been given to the training of illiterate adults in the English language and in the principles of democracy and the duties



of citizenship. This work is quite commonly known as "Americanization."

At the outset this instruction was provided for by public spirited citizens and organizations. Presently the public began to realize that the state should provide for such education, and as a result, several of the states have specific enactments providing for training in citizenship. Among the states which have rather complete legislation on this subject are California, Ohio, Rhode Island, Montana, New York, Arizona, Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, and Pennsylvania.

The School Code of California covers the field quite completely by making provisions concerning "Classes for Adults Deficient in English" and "Classes in Citizenship for Certain Persons." Under the former, classes are mandatory upon the application of twenty persons over twenty-one years of age, and who are unable to speak, read or write the English language equivalent to that required for the completion of the sixth grade of school. The classes are to meet at least twice per week for a two-hour period and the expenses are to be borne by the board of education. Classes for "training in citizenship" become mandatory upon the application of twenty-five persons who have signified their intention to become American citizens or have filed their petition for naturalization. Failure to provide such classes permits the superintendent of public instruction to deduct 5 per cent of the state and county apportionments. The course includes American history, state and community civics and the Constitution of the United States, English for foreigners, and such other subjects as "shall properly prepare such applicants to understand and assume the responsibilities of citizenship." The classes are held at least twice per week for three months.<sup>35</sup>

The Americanization legislation of Rhode Island includes both citizens and non-citizens. Provision is made for "public evening schools" and "public day continuation schools." The latter are open to any resident beyond the compulsory school age. In both of these schools English language and citizenship are stressed. A most unique provision is found in this statute. It provides that any person between sixteen and twenty-five years of age, who does not speak, read, or write the English language as approved by the state board of education, and who resides in a town where evening schools are provided and whose attendance is so desultory as to preclude his 200 hours of instruction annually as provided by the law, may be fined one dollar for each absence, but not to exceed twenty dollars in any one year. For "persistent refusal" to attend such classes a person may be committed to an institution during his minority.<sup>36</sup>

In Ohio the law makes it optional with the board of education to establish Americanization classes upon application of fifteen adult persons born outside of the United States and resident in the district. The state does not subsidize the district board of education but does permit it to charge tuition. The objectives as stated in the law are "to bring into sympathetic and mutually helpful relations the state and its residents of foreign origin, to protect immigrants from exploitation and abuse, to stimulate their acquisition and mastery of the English language, to develop their understanding of American government, institutions, and ideals, and, in general, to promote their assimilation and naturalization."<sup>37</sup>

By an act of 1921 the state board of education of Arizona is empowered to make provisions for the establishment and conduct of classes for immigrant and adult elementary education, and shall adopt a course of study "in the common schools, high schools, normal schools, and the university, which will include in each of the schools so designated not less than two years' training in civics, economics, American political history and government." Night schools may be provided for illiterates over sixteen years old, and in such schools "American ideals and an understanding of American institutions" must be taught.<sup>38</sup>

Pennsylvania has a rather unique way of dealing with this problem. The judge of the court of common pleas of any county containing a "large resident population of foreign born residents," may appoint one or more qualified instructors to teach said foreign born residents above school age, the duties, privileges, and the rights of citizenship, the principles of the government of the United States and of the state.<sup>39</sup>

New York provides for a wide range of such education, and sets up a high standard for the teachers of the classes. The commissioner of education is directed to maintain courses of study at least one year in length in "state normal institutions and in colleges and universities and other educational institutions . . . for the purpose of training teachers in principles and methods of instruction, and to give them knowledge to fit them to instruct foreign-born and native adults and minors over sixteen years of age in evening, extension, factory, home, and community classes." Special certificates are issued to those who have completed the required courses, and no one may give instruction in these classes who does not hold such certificate.<sup>40</sup>

The limits of this paper preclude a complete report of the legal requirements of each of the states on the subject of teaching civics in the schools from the elementary grades to the end of a university course. Nor is such labor necessary, for much simi-

larity and duplication would be encountered in every aspect of the subject. A complete tabulation of the legislative prescriptions concerning the teaching of civics and its allies in the public schools would be as follows: citizenship is required in twenty-six states, civics in twenty-two, and the Constitution of the United States in thirty-eight. A considerable number of the states specify all three of the above subjects.<sup>41</sup> The purpose of the writer has been to present the data in such manner as to mirror as completely as possible the minds of the people of all sections of the country upon the all-important problem of producing a more intelligent citizenship.<sup>42</sup>

<sup>1</sup> School Laws of Nevada, 1931, p. 140.

<sup>2</sup> Maryland Public School Laws, 1927, p. 45.

<sup>3</sup> Education Law, New York, 1932, pp. 238-39.

<sup>4</sup> Private Letter, dated Dec. 7, 1932.

<sup>5</sup> Iowa School Laws, 1929, p. 162.

<sup>6</sup> Connecticut Laws Relating to Education, 1931, pp. 21-22.

<sup>7</sup> Maine Public School Laws, 1931, p. 363.

<sup>8</sup> School of Laws of Minnesota, 1931, pp. 58-59.

<sup>9</sup> Public School Laws of Tennessee, 1925, p. 22.

<sup>10</sup> School Laws of Maryland, 1927, p. 43.

<sup>11</sup> Virginia School Laws, 1930, p. 61.

<sup>12</sup> Public School Laws, Texas, 1931, p. 144.

<sup>13</sup> School Laws of Indiana, 1932, p. 86.

<sup>14</sup> Virginia School Laws, 1930, p. 61.

<sup>15</sup> Arizona School Laws, 1931, p. 78.

<sup>16</sup> Michigan General School Laws, 1931, p. 90.

<sup>17</sup> School Laws of Massachusetts, 1932, p. 9.

<sup>18</sup> School Laws of Arkansas, 1931, p. 101.

<sup>19</sup> Kentucky Common School Laws, 1930, pp. 38-39.

<sup>20</sup> Michigan General School Laws, 1931, p. 237.

<sup>21</sup> Public School Laws of Texas, 1931, p. 132.

<sup>22</sup> General School Laws of South Carolina, 1929, p. 100.

<sup>23</sup> School Law of Arkansas, 1931, p. 101. Washington Code of 1923, p. 103.

<sup>24</sup> School Law of Connecticut, 1931, p. 23.

<sup>25</sup> School Laws of South Carolina, 1929, pp. 100-01.

<sup>26</sup> School Laws of California, 1931, p. 164.

<sup>27</sup> School Laws of Oregon, 1931, p. 107.

<sup>28</sup> Handbook for Teachers, p. 12.

<sup>29</sup> Public School Laws of Louisiana, 1926, p. 204.

<sup>30</sup> School Laws of Minnesota, 1931, p. 57.

<sup>31</sup> Nevada School Code, 1931, p. 138.

<sup>32</sup> Michigan Public School Laws, 1931, p. 237.

<sup>33</sup> Public School Laws of Texas, 1931, pp. 132-33.

<sup>34</sup> School Laws of Utah, 1931, p. 75.

<sup>35</sup> School Code of California, 1931, pp. 145-47.

<sup>36</sup> School Laws of Rhode Island, 1924, pp. 33-34.

<sup>37</sup> School Laws of Ohio, 1928, pp. 395-96.

<sup>38</sup> School Laws of Arizona, 1931, pp. 78-79.

<sup>39</sup> School Laws of Pennsylvania, 1931, pp. 229-30.

<sup>40</sup> Education Law, New York, 1932, pp. 39-40.

<sup>41</sup> From data prepared by Dr. Keesecker, of Office of Education, Washington, December, 1932.

<sup>42</sup> An address delivered before the American Political Science Association, at Detroit, December 29, 1932.

## The New Course in European History in New York City High Schools

By HERBERT D. A. DONOVAN, PH.D

James Madison High School

(Continued from the February number.)

EDITOR'S NOTE.—In the February issue Dr. Donovan showed the need for a revision of the course of study, and gave the new program through unit 5. He continues in the present article the remainder of the new program and the results to date.

### Unit 6—The Agricultural Revolution.

This is organized under five main topics, presented in a little more than one sheet. First, the organization of the medieval manor is to be reviewed, for background, as, similarly, the conditions of agriculture in 1750. Next to be presented is the application of science, through experimentation, and the introduction of machinery in farming. Factors delaying the change to modern conditions are enumerated, including "tariffs discouraging commerce in agricultural products." Some outstanding characteristics of agriculture as a modern industry are then named. The tendency toward larger farms, with the underlying cause of it, is mentioned. The reaction of agriculture upon the government, and some governmental policies in aid

of agriculture are listed for study. And, finally, certain national problems peculiar to countries like France, Russia and Ireland are brought out.

"Suggestions" on this unit are governed by the relative unfamiliarity of New York City pupils with agricultural practices. Teachers are advised to utilize such knowledge where it exists, and also to confine illustrations to some standard implement, such as the plow. The judgment is expressed that "many of the ills of modern agriculture can be shown to be at least partly due to maladjustment with the industrial age of which it is a part."

### Unit 7—Science in the Making of the Modern World.

"Science in its broadest sense is synonymous with organized learning and knowledge."

Phases of the application of science are outlined in two pages, with another page of "Suggestions." The treatment is scheduled to begin with a class discussion of what constitutes scientific methods and the scientific attitude of mind. Following this

comes an outlined summary of the chief fields in which scientific methods have been applied. They are listed under nine sub-heads, of which those most carefully outlined are "Health," "The Home," and "General Attitudes of Mind."

Under the first of these, important discoveries in the fields of medicine, surgery, and sanitation, are enumerated and are connected with the names of their several originators—except in the case of Pasteur, whose epochal work is perhaps assumed to be familiar to pupils through their study of biology; an assumption which, in general our experience confirms. Mental hygiene is referred to, and under it is mentioned "Development of mental tests," exemplified by Binet and Thorndyke. The great alteration in the status of the home due to the transfer of much work formerly done there, now done by outside agencies, and the altered character of entertainment caused by motion pictures and radio is to be stressed.

Under "Conceptions of Life," the idea of Darwinian evolution is to be presented, but the moot questions of its validity as a proved theory and of its decided limitations are not to be entered into in detail. Its great historical influence on the sciences is properly referred to; and, finally, the need of the scientific attitude of mind is emphasized, as expressed in a quotation from James Harvey Robinson.

"Suggestions" on this unit contain several pertinent hints to teachers, such as calling attention to the present importance of research laboratories in the development of industry, and advice to use models or pictures of machines. A high note is struck in the sentence: "The inventors of the X-ray, of insulin and of radium, by their refusal to capitalize their discoveries show the scientists' conception of morality in the world of ideas."

#### Unit 8—Nationalism.

This very live and controversial unit is handled in something over four sheets, followed by a full sheet of "Suggestions" and a half sheet of bibliography. Two aims are set down: "A. To promote an understanding of the great force of the sentiment of nationalism, today; B. To show how the national state has come to predominate." Several fundamental definitions are then presented, "as so many texts are careless in the use of these terms."

The subject is to be organized to illustrate nationalism both as a unifying force and as a disruptive force. As stated previously, no one country is to be required as an example . . . "either Italy or Germany" is recommended for study of an application of unifying nationalism. The modern history of these two countries is taken up in quite the conventional manner their unifications and the problems arising from their aggressiveness being pre-

sented in detail. The former Austro-Hungarian monarchy is taken as an outstanding illustration of intra-national conflicts arising out of nationalism. The remainder of the unit is devoted mostly to a study of the effects of the World War on nationalism, including the stimulation of nationalism in the Orient, and the probable repercussion of this upon the West. It is proposed that the subject-matter be concluded with a summary weighing the praiseworthy and the dangerous aspects of nationalism.

The "Suggestions" offered here warn us against over-emphasizing the details of wars arising out of nationalism. We are asked to stress "the tendency of nationalism to produce wars, and effect of wars on national spirit or national unity." The early conception of nationalism as an aid to peace is mentioned in connection with Mazzini and Herder; and a treatment by Professor Hayes of this view and the conflicting later one is recommended for study. There are interesting notes on Serbian and Czech nationalism, but Irish and Jewish nationalist feeling is referred to only briefly under "partial recognition of nationalism within empires." The bibliographical suggestions contain several of the most popular authorities, as well as less-known titles of strong internationalist flavor.

#### Unit 9—Democracy and Political Development.

In this unit, with which the second term's work will often begin, we find, first, a hook-up with the eighteenth century governmental system previously studied. Then comes "The Growth of Democratic Ideas to 1815," under which it is interesting to see listed five evidences of democracy in the original Constitution of the United States. The influence of the French Revolution and of Napoleon, including that on the Latin-American republics, is outlined. The rise and fall of the Metternich system is next considered. All the rest of the material is organized under "The Triumph of Democracy since 1815." The English system is to be studied, first through the various Reform Acts of Parliament, next through the features of the Cabinet System, and lastly through the supremacy of Parliament today. France is to be considered in comparison with England. Germany is treated in the obvious manner—undemocratic influences prevailing under the Empire, and the important provisions of its Republican government being named and estimated.

"The Conflict of Democracy and Dictatorships" calls attention to those two highly interesting and much-disputed systems, Sovietism and Facism. The wording of the original syllabus was rather more favorable to the Soviet system than to that of the Fascists. The conclusion is expressed that "dictatorships are all in countries which never had really democratic governments," and that there is "de-



votion of the great mass of people to democratic ideals."

The unit is covered in less than five sheets, besides a sheet of "Suggestions" and bibliography. The chief suggestions made are to contrast the Cabinet System with the government of the United States, and to ignore details of the various English Reform Bills, stressing only the groups of voters affected by each law. The bibliography emphasizes books on the new constitutions in Europe.

#### Unit 10—Imperialism.

The treatment of this unit, which is presented in almost exactly the same amount of space as the two preceding ones, may fairly be characterized, I think, as anti-imperialistic. The "Old Imperialism" is first presented as colonization resulting from the mercantile theory. Its accomplishments and the reasons for its decline are to be taught. The "New Imperialism" is visualized as a danger to world peace, and is presented as a direct and necessary result of the Industrial Revolution. Two general causes are given for this. Pretexts used by imperialists for advocating it are then presented. Next, we find a summary of the methods used. As an illustration of the working out of those methods, Egypt is suggested.

The next heading is "Fields of Imperialism," classified under Africa, the Far East, the Near East, and Latin America. The first and last of these are to be treated briefly, but the other two are to be organized in detail and to be studied as fully as time permits. Emphasis is placed upon the conflicting interests of the great powers.

The British Empire of today is contrasted with that of 1815. The political development of the British dominions is to be studied through a typical illustration, Canada. India is emphasized as "the key to England's policy in Far and Near East," and the results of imperialism there, culminating in Gandhi's nationalist movement, are to be studied. This is to be followed by "a brief survey of other principal empires."

The effects of imperialism are carefully outlined under three heads: "A. On colony; B. On mother country; C. On civilization." Among the chief points made are that "civilization" contains both good and bad elements; that imperialism is the most fertile cause of war; and that world standardization has been brought about by a world-wide market for the same goods.

Finally, we meet the dilemma of imperialism—on the one hand, control of the resources of backward areas is essential to the expansion of capitalism; on the other hand, such control rouses dangerous restlessness among exploited peoples. One possible solution, the mandate system, is presented for study.

The "Suggestions" on this unit insist on the instilling of the real meaning of imperialism and its danger to world peace. Details—e.g., lists of colonies—are to be used "only so far as they are necessary to make the problems clear"; this obviously leaves much to the discretion of the teacher. Good questions are raised as to the economic value of colonies, and the changed attitude of missionaries toward the need of protection by their home governments. Finally, emphasis is put on the fact that citizens usually know little of the extent to which their imperialistically-minded rulers have committed them, until it is too late. Under the bibliography we find, in addition to the standard titles, books by Angell, Peffer, and Brailsford presenting the dangers in imperialism.

#### Unit 11—The Fine Arts since 1830.

This unit is treated in two sheets. The literature of the Victorian Age in England is to be studied in some detail, the influence of the novelists upon the opinions of the people being stressed. Dickens is the chief novelist named for consideration, his social exposures, as well as those of Charles Reade and the Brownings being mentioned. Other writers listed are Thackeray, Eliot, Stevenson, Tennyson, Kipling, and Morris. Continental writers of the same period presented as typical include Hegel, Heine, Hauptman and Suderman of the Germans, Balzac, de Maupassant, and Zola of the French, Ibsen of the Norwegians and Gogol, Turgeniev, Tolstoi, and Dostoevski of the Russians—these last "present Russian life and character with intense realism, and become world figures." There is no mention of Spain, Italy, or Latin America. Twentieth-century literature is to be related to our modern problems, the chief exponents of it named here being English and Irish. The growth of historical writing in England and Germany is cited.

Under painting and sculpture, the French naturalists, the impressionists, and Cezanne and Rodin are to be considered. The music most emphasized is that of the Germans; Chopin, Liszt, and Verdi are also named. The development of national "schools" of music in the later nineteenth century is noted. The new type of architecture developed in the United States is to be commented upon. As methods of presenting this unit, those named under unit 2 are again suggested.

#### Unit 12—The World War.

This unit is covered in three sheets. It is subdivided into causes, spread of the war, chief features of the war, and the making and terms of peace. Underlying causes named include international anarchy, economic imperialism, excessive nationalism, militarism (and navalism). The various alliances preceding the war are listed, with their objectives. Then, the final outbreak.



Under "Spread of the War," we find the usual presentation of the successive entry of various nations, concluding with the United States. The "futility of trying to assess blame for the War" is prominently suggested. Among "Chief Features of the War" to be studied are the applications of science to destructive ends. The enormous cost of the war from every standpoint is stressed. One sheet is then devoted to the successive negotiations for peace.

#### Unit 13—Peace.

This unit fills five full sheets. First comes a summary of the influences for peace, grouped under "Internationalism" and "International Law." The former covers the various private agencies such as the Red Cross, the Standard Oil Company, and the Olympic Games Committee, whose interests reach to many nations; also the bureaus established by agreement among governments, such as the International Institute of Agriculture. International Law is to be explained as to its origin and the reason for its past weakness. Next comes a brief treatment of the attempts made before 1914 to secure peace; the Hague Conferences are stressed.

Two sheets are then devoted to the organization and the work of the League of Nations. The emphasis here is put on the procedure followed in trying to adjust international disputes, four examples of which are listed. There is a careful outline of the various routine activities of the League, grouped under eight headings. The two most prominently stressed are the economic efforts, such as the reconstruction of Austria and the social and humanitarian work, such as the limitation of opium traffic and the repatriation of war prisoners. The relations of the United States to the League are next considered, and our increasing coöperation with the League is described.

The World Court is next to be taken up, and the causes that have heretofore prevented the adherence of the United States, together with the efforts to adjust the difficulty, are presented for study. The Locarno Conference is next discussed. The events leading up to it are carefully outlined, and the treaties resulting from it are to be studied. The Kellogg Pact is similarly treated, with the addition of a brief synopsis of its elements of strength and weakness. Finally, the steps thus far taken toward disarmament are listed and described. The relation of security and disarmament is analyzed. The judgment is expressed that disarmament is delayed because "nations are unwilling to give up national advantage and are thinking of disarmament in terms of war rather than of peace." On this topic, as on the preceding one, no "Suggestions" were originally appended.

#### Unit 14—Some Social Movements.

Five sheets are devoted to outlining this unit. The first topic taken up is that of the relations of church and state. The former universality of established churches is brought out. The radical changes made by the French revolutionists after 1792 are summarized, and the bitterness resulting in many countries from arbitrary attempts to enforce these is to be explained. The legal changes made in various countries through the disestablishing of official churches, seizure of church property, etc., are enumerated. Much care had to be exercised in wording these actions so as to avoid giving the impression that almost any anti-clerical activity constitutes "progressive democracy." Phrases implying this proved offensive to many, and were accordingly stricken out.

"The Development of Publication Education" is taken up, next. Pioneer steps in this field are referred to, and the relation of the Industrial Revolution thereto is offered for explanation. The feeling that "the growth of democracy is both a cause and an effect of free education" is to be brought out. Then, we have a synopsis of the slow spread of public school systems—in France, in England, in Germany, and in the United States.

"The Growth of Tolerance" is next treated. We are told that "Toleration implies permitting, if not welcoming, a belief or point of view differing from that held by the majority or those in control of the government. Intolerance or denial of the right of free thought is based upon fear, self-interest, or ignorance." This characterization, it may be noted, does not take into account intolerance on the part of reformers or iconoclasts, which is quite as often shown and may be equally dangerous.

Examples of early religious intolerance are cited. The growth of toleration, with reasons abetting it, is discussed in some detail. The present legal status of religious minorities, with certain influences operating against it, is summarized. Scientific toleration and political toleration are treated in similar fashion. In the economic field, it is held that "intolerance is generally the rule," both Communists and anti-Communists being blamed therefor. Racial intolerance is pointed out by examples as probably the hardest variety to eliminate, especially where founded upon an economic basis, as in the case of the negroes in the South.

There is a good summary of reasons why pupils should learn that toleration is important, and a brief summary of how it is likely to gain ground. Finally, the "Suggestion" is made that "until the material under 'Public Education' and 'Tolerance' is more available in the textbooks these sections should be stencilled and placed in the hands of the students; they may also be supplemented by reports."

#### IV. THE REVISION OF THE SYLLABUS AND THE RESULTS OF THE COURSE TO DATE

Such was the organization of the new course, as formulated in the spring of 1931, and so it was submitted to the schools for trial and revision. It was recognized as almost certain that its progress would be slow and its success depend upon factors varying from school to school, which would have to be modified in certain cases, if the results of our experiment were to be an improvement on former conditions. Along this line, some interesting but impracticable proposals were heard; e.g., that some high schools might undertake the intensive study of certain countries or phases of work, while others alternated on different countries or phases.

The great majority of our city high schools proceeded promptly to put the course into practice, though in varying degrees of application. As was anticipated, experience with the course has revealed numerous criticisms, of different degrees of seriousness, and these in turn have led to considerable modifications, some general and many local. I shall discuss the more important and common ones, as they have been observed to this time.

The most general adverse criticism perhaps has been that the new course, expected to be a relief from superfluous material that overloaded the old, has in actual practice resulted in increasing the amount of detail that is presented for study. Consequently, complaints have been heard that teachers have not been relieved from an unnecessary burden. This situation, where it exists, undoubtedly results from a misinterpretation of the Committee's intentions, and an unwillingness to scrap any of the traditional subject-matter that classes in this field of history have studied in the past. Teachers continue to argue, with some justice, that present conditions in Germany and in Italy cannot be fully understood without a study of the struggles that welded those nationalities into nations. Hence, those teachers are reluctant to drop either example of nationalism from the course.

Another complaint has been that many, if not most, of the details concerning culture are represented by names and facts that are just as remote from pupils' experience as were the political facts that they displaced. It may be said, for instance, that Verdi's work as a composer has as little significance to a pupil as did the Franco-Sardinian war against Austria. It is likely that this will remain true until we are able to correlate closely the outstanding facts in the history of art with some vivid presentation of the conditions that brought them forth.

Finally, the arrangement and distribution of some of the units and topics gave rise to criticism on the score of not being the best arrangement,

logically and pedagogically. It was asserted that some of the political events commonly treated under Nationalism, Unit 8, would best follow those under the French Revolution, Unit 3, without the interposition of the non-political items in Units 4-7. As we have already noted, there is nothing in the original recommendations to make such an order of presentation impossible, if desired.

The various schools tried many changes and adaptations of the course, and many devices for using it. Thus, in the James Madison High School, we had the entire first Unit printed in the form of a booklet, and for two terms distributed this to the pupils. We then discontinued this plan, having decided that the language was too difficult for pupils in the lower grades, and that the time required for its proper presentation was lacking.

In the spring of 1932, after about a year's trial, the teachers submitted suggestions to the committee, and in conformity therewith, the Committee prepared a set of "Syllabus Changes." The most important of these may be summarized as follows:

First, a new Statement of Objectives was offered. Eight objectives were listed, viz: intellectual curiosity, ability to analyze a situation, historical mindedness, social mindedness, international mindedness, willingness to be in a minority, sympathy with uplifting forces, and belief in the possibility of infinite progress. Most of these objectives are defined in some detail.

The course is now recommended to start with a "Cross section of England in 1750, and recall conditions in the United States at that time," the Background being omitted. Examples of material that ought to be included are given, such as "People living . . . without running water or proper sanitation; little travel . . . political power in the hands of the nobility . . . but people had individual rights (examples) . . . Domestic system . . . displacing guilds." The study of the Cabinet, absolutism in France, and the Agricultural Revolution of the eighteenth century are to be transferred to related Units elsewhere in the course. The rest of Unit 2—chiefly on the arts in the eighteenth century—is to be omitted or taken up elsewhere.

The Industrial Revolution may be taken next. It is to be optional either to complete its study to date, showing its effects on England, or to reserve the discussion of those effects until the French Revolution is studied. Much of the material previously listed here now becomes optional, including the spread of the Revolution to Europe, Asia and the United States, why it was late on the Continent, the development of the oil engine, the belt system, new industries founded on chemistry, and rationalization.

In the French Revolution Unit, the rise of small

farms and their modern importance in France is to be stressed. The Bank of France and public works may be omitted. Two fundamental ideas are proposed, viz, the abolition of special privileges, and the statement of a democratic ideal and philosophy, not then achieved. As a minimum content, we are to teach the social and economic reforms of the Revolution, the Declaration of the Rights of Man, the reforms of Napoleon, the extent of their spread, and the extent of reaction against them.

The Labor Unit has been considerably changed. The wording previously used, "struggle between capital and labor," is eliminated. Sub-topics II, III, and IV are combined into "The Labor Union Movement in England." Optional projects connected with it include the effect on unions of several important Acts of Parliament. The International Labor Office is to be optional as to details. So also is the development of international Socialism. Bolshevism may be transferred to the unit "Democracy," in connection with Russia. Under its policies, the war on religion is added. Details of the coöperative movement are somewhat condensed. The suggestion is made that consumers "coöperation must not be confused with producers coöperation named under the Agricultural Revolution." This latter co-operation becomes an optional project, also "Government Policies toward Agriculture." Under the Science Unit, "Mental Hygiene" and "Science in the Home" are optional.

There are no significant changes under Unit 8 except the requirement to bring out "that Nationalism is an almost universal concept today." The material in Unit 9, "Democracy," is somewhat delimited, many details being specifically made optional. The minimum content to be taught includes the evolution of political democracy in England, the government of the Third French Republic, the effect of the World War on democracy, and the future of democracy. A summary list of fundamental ideas is called to the teachers' attention. Under Unit 10, "Imperialism," the "Old Imperialism," the application of Imperialism in Africa, the Near East and Latin America, and the consideration of existing empires other than the British are to be optional. "Enough examples should be taken to make clear the causes, methods and results of imperialism."

The difficulties involved in properly presenting Unit 11 are recognized, and it is recommended that "each teacher do as much as possible to introduce the material and properly illustrate the general ideas of this unit, but that the particular parts used to accomplish it be entirely optional." Coöperation by other departments of the school is urged.

In the next two units, many details are made optional. Under "Alliances prior to 1914," the

Holy Alliance is omitted. The purpose of alliances rather than their details is to be stressed. The criticism implied in the previous description of the activities of the Preparatory Commission for the Disarmament Conference is eliminated by omitting the judgment quoted above. The World War Unit is clarified by several suggestions intended to bring out the universal danger of war and the impossibility of one nation, like our own, avoiding participation in future wars. Relationships are to be traced between modern international conditions and those of former times. On the succeeding Unit, there is a significant prologue:

"If peace is to become a reality we must educate pupils in its technique just as in the past they have been educated along war lines. Because much of this material is not easily available, this topic has been worked out in more detail than the preceding ones and constitutes what the committee believes should be a minimum knowledge of the work of the League and of the post-war efforts to maintain peace permanently."

The main emphasis here is to be placed on methods, such as the conference method, rather than the organization of the League.

The final Unit, "Social Developments," has been amended in two respects. The first of these is in regard to "Separation"—of Church and State—"as an issue in the nineteenth Century." The approach now is through nationalism, which "tends to exalt the state and leads to the demand for the state control of many services performed by the churches—marriage, education, charitable work." The possibility of an "established or specially privileged" church being used by certain political groups is mentioned, and the formation of, first, anti-clerical and, later, clerical parties in many countries is brought out. The other topic that has been altered is that of "Scientific Toleration," wherein the normal result of the scientific attitude in welcoming new ideas is stated, and a juster explanation is made of the reason why church authorities have at times strenuously opposed some scientific theories. Two sheets are devoted to a summary of the fundamental ideas and the minimum content of this Unit. The necessity of the greatest tolerance because of the need of constant changes in a mechanical age is emphasized, and certain other arguments for it are stated, which may be developed.

By these changes, the Committee has tried to meet whatever just criticism has thus far been levelled against the course. They indicate the intention of the body of history teachers in New York City to find and to apply the most practicable way of presenting this intensely live field of social science material, so as to bring out positive beneficial results other than the acquisition of information.



# Technocracy

By FRANCES N. AHL  
Glendale, California

Six months ago few people had heard of technocracy. Today it is one of the most talked of subjects throughout our entire nation. Civic clubs, church groups, social organizations, and students everywhere are discussing technocracy.

The term technocracy refers to three things. First, it means the group of research engineers and scientists who, under the direction of Mr. Howard Scott, are conducting "The Energy Survey of North America." This survey is concerned with "the behavior of our social and industrial mechanism." Charts, picturing the employment, production, and energy expended during the past 100 years, are in process of preparation for more than 3000 commodities. Second, technocracy means the theories advanced by the group. And third, it means a new state of civilization which will follow the reorganization of our economic system according to the principles of these engineers.

Now, the chief theory of the technocrats is that civilization is headed for the most revolutionary change ever experienced by man. This change will come, say the engineers, within the next two years because of the development of the automatic machine and the alleged breakdown of our present price system.

Technology has advanced to the point where modern machinery is carrying our economic and social mechanism at an ever increasing pace. The automatic factory, which is accomplished by the integration of mechanical power and a series of machines in a continuous straight-line process, is already a reality in several industries. Modern brick plants employing twenty men on the machine are producing 300,000 bricks per day or 15,000 bricks per day per man. In the incandescent lamp manufacturing plant, one man is accomplishing in a single hour the work that required 550 hours in 1914. Shoes are being produced at the rate of 62.5 pairs per man per week. In the last few years new machines have increased the output of cigarettes from 600 to 2600 a minute. There is being perfected a new typesetting machine which will enable one man automatically to set type in 1000 cities. A rayon factory in New Jersey now operating under the new processes requires but a few men in the entire plant.

This intensification of the efficiency of the machine is the cause, in the opinion of the technocrats, of widespread unemployment. They maintain that if all our factories were running at the 1929 pro-

duction there would not be work for half of our unemployed. Furthermore, such a production rate would so flood our markets with goods that even greater confusion would result. Unless some drastic adjustments are made, the number of unemployed will continue to increase. In the words of Mr. Bassett Jones, prominent consulting engineer and chief mathematical expert of technocracy, "If the rate of decrease in man-hours maintains for fifty years, there will be 20,000,000 unemployed in this country. At the peak of production in 1928 there were nearly 3,000,000 unemployed workers—an amazing fact when you first run into it. If the whole production plant were put to work at full capacity today, there would be about 6,000,000 unemployed workers."

Technocracy maintains that the United States has at her command the labor of five times the population of the world or 1,000,000,000 installed horsepower if it were fully used. But it is not fully used. Herein they see the real difficulty. We have increased our physical efficiency in the production of goods without creating a social mechanism capable of handling that production.

An important theory advanced by the technocrats in connection with our present price system is the monetary debt. They say the total debt of this nation is 218,000,000,000 dollars. We have been issuing bonds on obsolete equipment. Ninety-nine per cent of the locomotives on the American railroads are obsolete, and yet some of the railroad bonds will not mature for many years. We have issued bonds on a false theory of expansion to infinity until fixed charges on our debt now total half of our national income. Our debt is increasing faster than production and is thereby proving too burdensome for our industrial mechanism.

Another difficulty pointed out by technocracy is the lack of money. The solution is to substitute for our present system a new means of exchange based on the energy output of the country. Energy units instead of gold or other commodity is needed as the exchange medium. This new money could not be hoarded. It would become valueless after a certain period. A given amount of it, however, might be saved for the purpose of travel after one is pensioned. Banks, taxes, mortgages, and wages would be abolished.

In the new state of civilization pictured by the technocrats, young men and women would remain in school until twenty-five years of age. From twen-



ty-five until forty-five it would be necessary for them to labor but four hours a day for four days a week. They would enjoy a standard of living ten times above the average income of 1929. On reaching the age of forty-five, they would receive a pension of 4000 energy units per year.

Thus the technocrats picture work for all, but not in wearisome amounts. There is to be a plentiful supply of every possible need. Hence happiness will prevail and crime will vanish.

Every item in this glowing picture has been criticized by opponents of technocracy. The figures for specific industries have been reduced by experts in those industries to only reasonable increases which do not threaten disaster to workingman or capitalist.

The technocrats do not take into consideration the human element. They assume that given equal assurance of adequate income and old age pensions, all will be competent and anxious to do their part.

The analytical student of economics maintains that the premises of the technocrats are wrong and therefore their conclusions are faulty. He says that technology does not cause unemployment to increase. He claims that the present unemployment is due to a general decline of business and not to a greater use of the machine. He maintains that employment was greater in 1930 than at any other time. He admits that the machine has increased the

capacity of man to produce goods, but denies the fact that greater productivity causes more unemployment. Men displaced by machines in one industry are absorbed by other industries.

The business man generally rejects the conclusions of technology. The historian questions the newness of some of the discoveries of the technocrats, and believes some of their claims are exaggerated. The statesman doubts the wisdom of a group of technicians controlling an entire nation.

Yet all the discussion about technocracy is beneficial, for it calls attention to the wrongs of our present social and economic system. It emphasizes the fact that millions are unemployed, that starvation and wealth exist side by side; that unless the present ills are soon corrected, our entire social structure is threatened.

No doubt the doctrines of technology are being accepted too readily by the discontented multitudes who are willing to welcome anything that promises a change. Perhaps they are linked with the furtherance of doubtful political ideas. However, the discussion of remedial measures is calling out the best thought of our nation. The solution will, undoubtedly, call for sacrifice from all of us in the inevitable give and take of compromise. Let us teachers have faith in the efficacy of human intelligence to devise a method that will have the merit of practicality and also of justice.

## World History for This International Age

By HENRY C. FENN

*Oak Lane Country Day School of Temple University, Philadelphia*

A survey of the voluntary reading of the high school students of a certain private school revealed the fact that a small but significant number has read and enjoyed Mr. Harold Lamb's "Genghis Khan, the Emperor of All Men." What a title—Emperor of All Men! Those who have read the book must realize that Genghis had a better right to it than any of the so-called world rulers of the western world before the colonial empires of today, better by far than the claim of the Persian Khosroes to the dignity of "King of Kings," better even than that of the Chinese emperors to being lord of "all within the four seas." Meditating on this, I turned to the first high school history available and glanced through the index for references to Genghis Khan and the Mongols. Behold what wealth of information I found! The chapter on the Crusades closed with a paragraph on the results of that human tide, confessing that it should be added that the Mongol Empire was responsible in large degree for the fa-

cilities of communication which made possible the travels of Marco Polo and other medieval travelers to the court of the Grand Khans. For the next reference I had to turn over to Peter the Great's time; there I learned that Russia had been overrun by the Tatars (only the medieval spelling *Tartars*, suggesting the fiends of Tartarus, was retained). The supplanting of the Moguls in India by the British in the eighteenth century naturally brought mention of the fact Moguls were merely Indianized Mongols. And that is the extent of the notice given to "The Emperor of All Men" and his Mongols by one modern historian. It seems fair to consider this typical of high school texts on General History. Lest there be any misunderstanding, let me state that the text referred to above is not entitled *So-and-so's History of Europe*, but is given a broad title which would seem to embrace the entire world, the whole progress of civilization.

This is not an attempt to make out a case for

more attention to Genghis Khan. He is getting it, thanks to the present fad for biography. It is a plea for the reconsideration of the field of history presented to high school students—not to mention college students—as a background for intelligent world citizenship. It is a demand for the re-evaluation of historical events in the light of modern internationalism. The suggestion is ventured that some events in the stories of China, India, Japan, even out-of-the-way Central Asia, are really more important to general knowledge than some of the facts of European, English, even American History, which are now regularly, year after year, being crammed into the reluctant minds of our youth. If one of the main ends sought in the study of history is a better understanding of the peoples, cultures and problems of the world commonwealth of nations today—and I take it no one will object to that as *one* goal—then a greatly increased attention should be given to the history of non-European peoples.

The efforts of Messrs. Wells, Van Loon, and others within the last two decades, show that there is an increasing demand for a de-occidentalization of school and popular history. Various methods of approach have been tried. I should like to suggest one which has been very much neglected despite its simplicity. This is no attempt to re-write texts, though that desperately needs doing. It is a suggestion as to how the student's point of view on history may be so re-oriented that, while using the inadequate texts of today, he may get a real world view of what has happened to mankind as a whole. No single work covers the ground, though some of the modern "outlines" come nearer to it than any school text; hence it will be necessary to go into some detail regarding events not ordinarily known to the isolated occident. The facts can be checked and sufficient detail obtained for teaching from a very moderate reference library. The *Encyclopedia Britannica* is, I take it, always available. Wells' *Outline of History* is indispensable. The stories of China, Japan, India and the Islamic world are now available in sufficiently simplified and popular form in single volume works by several authors.

The addition of Asiatic materials does not, of course, make a history course genuinely world wide in scope. The Americas before Columbus and the major part of the African continent remain untouched; but the reason is apparent: we do not yet know enough about these regions to reconstruct their history. Someday we probably shall; meanwhile we may well concentrate on the inexcusably neglected regions of Asia.

One of my own greatest problems in studying history has been the coördination of events, the recognition of parallelisms in time. I owe Mr. H. G.

Wells a large debt of gratitude for his charts, for since discovering them I have charted nearly every field of history studied. But one can go a step farther than Mr. Wells by deliberately selecting and emphasizing parallels: similar events in different lands, notable contemporaries, world wide movements. And along with such parallels more attention can be paid to the less-neglected sequence of events. The combination of the two provides the student with a criss-crossed framework on which he can hang the more isolated major events. Given very moderate powers of visualization, the student is enabled to place in time, in geographical position, and in relationship with other events whatever information he gleans from his study.

#### BEGINNINGS OF HISTORICAL RECORD

The date of the first Olympiad, 776 B.C., is often taken as a starting point in accurately dated occidental history. It is not generally known that the history of the present four hundred million Chinese has a similar point of take-off. In 772 B.C., only four years after the first Olympiad, an inroad of barbarians from the northwest forced the removal of the Chinese capital, and from this time on we have a degree of accuracy in Chinese dates, comparable with the fixity of Greek and Roman dates, which does not hold for events previous to it. Both these dates are more easily remembered in connection with two others. The great work of Herodotus, the "Father of History," ends with events of 478 B.C. It is a striking fact that the first document which can be called a history of China, the *Spring and Autumn Annals* of Confucius, begins with 772 B.C. and ends with 481 B.C. So we can say that the first great histories of the West and of the East cover roughly the same periods—so far as historical events are concerned, for each contains some legendary material—776-479 B.C. in the West, 772-481 B.C. in the East. This parallel can be still further emphasized by noting that while Greece was going through the stage of quarreling city states, China likewise was on a larger scale passing through the same process of social evolution; Greece failed to unite until modern times, but in the third century B.C. China became unified.

#### THE AGE OF PHILOSOPHERS

If a single date is desired, about which to group the great names of the first world wide philosophical orgy, one might choose 500 B.C. There had been a group of Hebrew prophets, contemporaries of Amos and Isaiah, in the eighth century. Around 600 B.C. we find their task being furthered by Jeremiah, Ezekiel and others, while in Greece, Solon and Pythagoras mark the beginning of a long line of names famous to the western world. In the middle

of the sixth century come Gautama Buddha in India and Confucius in China. The fifth and fourth centuries bring Socrates, Plato and Aristotle in Greece, Minor Prophets among the Jews, and a host of China's master thinkers such as Lao Tze, source of the whole Taoist teaching, Mencius, the organizer of Confucianism, and Yang Chu the hedonist, Chuang Tze the mystic, and Mo Ti the apostle of universal love, to mention but three of the more creative off-shoots of the Confucian and Taoist schools. It is possible also that Zoroaster lived at this time. Never in all history has there been another such time of world wide thinking, and as the West comes to know better the works of the great masters of the East there must inevitably spread an increasing appreciation of the present-day value of the non-Christian Asiatic philosophies.

#### THE FIRST WORLD EMPIRES

The sequence of empires in the Near East and Mediterranean regions is familiar to every high school student who manages to pass College Boards or Regents, but if one could have watched this succession of events from a perch on the moon, would it not have seemed rather local? What of the rest of the hemisphere? Of India? Of China?

After the death of Alexander western histories ignore all of Persia east of the Tigris-Euphrates valley. Yet in that eastern area there grew up on the ruins of Seleucid rule two states of considerable importance, Bactria and Parthia. The former, dominating Afghanistan and the Punjab, preserved the elements of Greek culture long enough so that they have left a lasting impression on the art of India. The latter proved to be the only state able to stand against the all-conquering Romans. Seated at the crossroads of trade and conquest, the Parthians inherited from Persians and Greeks, and dealt with Rome, India and China. It is recorded that after the Parthian victory over the Romans at Carrhae in 53 B.C. a soldier bearing on his spear the head of the Roman general Crassus, broke into a quiet court scene at Seleucia where King Orodes was watching a Greek play of Euripides, and gave his message of triumph by casting the trophy into the midst of the actors.

In India, on the heels of Alexander's legions, came the adventurer Chandragupta Maurya to set up the Mauryan dynasty. His grandson Asoka ruled from the Oxus to the mouths of the Ganges but gave up conquest to devote himself to the service of his people. He is best known however, as the "Constantine of Buddhism" for under his patronage and by his active missionary zeal Buddhism became firmly implanted in India and began to spread to neighboring peoples.

Meanwhile China was preparing to play her part

in this drama of international relations. From the end of the Confucian History in 481 B.C. down to 255 B.C. is known as the period of the warring states; China was trying to become unified and finally succeeded by the time honored method of one petty state swallowing all the others. But the great unifier, Ch'in Shih Huang, succeeded during the last half of the third century B.C. in his ambition to bring all China under one rule, only to find that his Tatar neighbors to the north had no intention of allowing him to enjoy at his ease the fruits of his efforts. To keep out these plundering nomads he completed the Great Wall of China, but that barrier, while an occasional and temporary defense, proved to be no permanent solution to the problem. For the rest of Chinese history we read of intermittent struggles with the Tatars. Chinese emperors, after trying in vain to hold back these wild horsemen, have been repeatedly forced to the conclusion that only their complete subjugation would assure China of extended peace. In the course of the first great struggle with the Tatars, and while China was still undecided as to how to deal with her neighbors, there took place a romantic episode which belongs in every General History the world over because it marks the beginning of contacts between China and the western world.

The tribe of the Yueh Chih, possibly of Aryan origin, lived in that region of Asia where on modern maps a long thin arm of China runs northwest between Tibet and Mongolia to connect with Chinese Turkestan. In common with the Chinese, the Yueh Chih were obliged to defend themselves against the growing menace of the Tatar Huns, or Hsiungnu, stock from which later sprang Attila's Huns who ravaged Europe in the fifth century A.D. The year 167 B.C. saw the Yueh Chih disastrously defeated, their chief slain. In despair they sought a home farther west in the valley of the Ili river south of Lake Balkash, but that region had been preëempted by a tribe too strong for them to eject, so the Yueh Chih moved slowly into what had been Alexander the Great's provinces of Sogdiana and Bactriana and settled on the upper waters of the Oxus River. Meanwhile China began to wonder what had happened to her northwestern buffer against the Hsiungnu; the Yueh Chih were needed. When the Emperor Wu learned of their trek he decided to send after them and recall them. General Chang Ch'ien volunteered for this mission and started off in 138 B.C. with one hundred men as escort. Seized by the Hsiungnu at the very border of China, Chang lived among them for ten years and married a Tatar wife, but never did he forget his mission. He eventually escaped with one companion, made his way westward inquiring for the lost Yueh Chih until he found them in their new home on the Oxus, very



well satisfied with its more moderate climate and with their new position of dominance among the peoples of that region. All suggestions of return to China met with flat refusal; nevertheless Chang Ch'ien lived among them for a year gleaning much information of the states, routes and commerce of Central Asia. On his return trip he was again captured by the Hsiungnu and held for a year, but in 128 B.C. he appeared at the Chinese court with wife and son and such tales of the western regions as must have made him a veritable Messer Millione to the isolated Chinese mind of that day. It is to the credit of the emperor that he followed Chang's advice and proceeded to open communications with the states of Central Asia—Fergana, the Yueh Chih, Parthia—and ere long had established trading posts and garrisons for the protection of caravans. This politico-commercial expansion to the northwest had the effect on the Hsiungnu of a flanking movement and eventually resulted in bringing them under Chinese control. Thus was established in a much troubled region a *Pax Sinica* or Chinese Peace, similar to and contemporary with the *Pax Romana* in the Mediterranean area.

If we compare the Chinese Empire of the Han Dynasty (205 B.C.-220 A.D.) with the better known empires of the West we find that the Han rule covered a land area approximately equal to the combined extent of Alexander's domain and the Roman Empire at its greatest extent, or roughly the size of the continental United States. In all the lands of the West there was no natural barrier comparable with that which the Chinese legions of General Pan Ch'ao surmounted before they reached the Caspian Sea in 97 A.D. The Chinese conquests extended civilization, security, intercourse and order to lands which had never known them before, and thus offered something to make up in part for the attendant slaughter and the yoke of foreign rule. Surely we must grant that this Han Empire meant fully as much to the progress of civilization as did its Roman contemporary; yet it has been completely ignored while we feed our children such petty spites as the Peloponnesian War and the ruthlessness of a drunken Alexander.

#### THE GOLDEN AGE OF LITERATURE

As the Roman Peace in the west brought a great wave of literary productivity in the Mediterranean area, based on Greek models, so the Chinese Peace in the same two centuries bracketing the birth of Christ brought a tide of genius in the Far East which made use of and developed the materials collected and handed down by the Confucian and Taoist schools of thought. Ch'in Shih Huang, the Unifier, had burned all the books he could lay hands on because the conservatism of the scholarly class

threatened his great experiment in unification. In Han times there were dug up such bamboo records as had been hidden from the Unifier's wrath. Polybius, historian of Greece and Rome (ca 170 B.C.) lived at about the same time as the first of the great Ssu-ma family of historians in China. Ssu-ma T'ang started *The Record of History* which his more famous son Ssu-ma Ch'ien carried on, summing up all of Chinese history to the first century B.C. While Tacitus was writing his record of Rome, and Josephus was compiling his history of the Jewish people, Pan Ku in China was evolving his monumental history of the Former Han Dynasty (206 B.C.-25 A.D.). It was so large a work that Pan Ku merely carried on through his own life the task started by his father, and left it unfinished for his remarkable sister to complete. These historians all worked during the latter half of the first century A.D.

In the field of more creative writing we have a wealth of names. Cicero, Caesar, Horace, Vergil, Livy, Ovid are but a handful of the best known Roman writers of the Golden Age. A list of the names of their Chinese contemporaries would be meaningless without detailed explanation. Julius Caesar subdued the tribes of western Europe and wrote his *Commentaries*; Chinese generals starting out on campaigns against the Hsiungnu wrote love poems to their wives, and returning in safety were glad to lay aside the sword for the brush pen. That brush pen, by the way, is supposed to have been invented by a Chinese general in 209 B.C.; a century later came the invention of paper to complete the usefulness of the pen. Previously slips of bamboo had been used to write on and these had been strung together to form books. It was more than a millenium before Chinese paper reached Europe.

#### THE COLLAPSE OF EMPIRES

The first half of the third century A.D. witnessed startling changes in widely separated regions. Rome continued its sway in the western world, but in 219 Parthian rule in Persia gave way to a native dynasty, the Sassanid; in northwest India the Kushan Empire, founded on the ruins of Asoka's domain by the Yueh Chih, fell and left India to a century of turmoil; the year 221 in China marks the end of the Han Empire and the beginning of half a century of internecine strife and four centuries of disunion before the next great world empire of the Chinese.

Those four centuries—the third to the seventh—are marked less by parallels than sequences. Another great nomadic surge was brewing on the Mongolian steppes. To distinguish these Huns from the Hsiungnu of 200 B.C. they are known as White Huns or Ephthalites. One branch descended upon China and held through a succession of dynasties

varying portions of the territory north of the Yangtze River down to the close of the sixth century. A second branch blazed a trail for the Mongols of the thirteenth century by crossing Russia, driving the Goths into the Roman Empire, and penetrating Europe to Chalons, where the defeat of Attila in 451 perhaps saved Greco-Roman culture from complete submergence. A third branch of the White Huns early in the fifth century ended the Kushan kingdom and overran much of Sassanid Persia. Mihiragula, their greatest chief, was not expelled from the Indus valley until 528. These White Huns thus dominated a vast stretch of territory embracing all of Central Asia except Tibet, and varying portions of Europe, China, Persia, and India. The overthrow of their main horde in Central Asia in 565 was due to the rise of a new Tatar wave, the Turks, only less terrible than the White Huns themselves.

#### THE MOSLEM ERA

One Eastern movement we of the West have not ignored for the simple reason that from the seventh century down it kept our European ancestors on the *qui vive* by its intermittent but very thorny contacts; that is Islam. We have not neglected the military aspects of the Mohammedan movement because we could not; we have, however, given little attention to its cultural side. Common knowledge of the literature of the lands overrun by the Arabs is limited to the tale of Sohrab and Rustum, the Arabian Nights' Entertainments and the Rubaiyat of Omar Khayyam. In high schools we insist on a background course in General History even if it is actually far from cosmic in scope. How long will it be before we offer a background course in World Literature for the promotion of better understanding among neighbors?

We all learned of Mohammed's Hegira in 622 and his death ten years later; our attention was then led to the entry of the Arabs into Spain in 711 and the thwarting of their northward drive at Tours just a century after the demise of the Prophet. We caught fleeting glimpses of the struggle between Arabs and Byzantines. But what of the great eastern horn of the crescent? How many realize that India underwent repeated Mohammedan invasions, thanks to internal dissensions even worse than those of Europe? And how many stop to think that this infusion of a foreign religion and culture, on the one hand, gave to India that whole development of art and architecture which produced the incomparable Taj Mahal and at the same time split India into the two rival sects which today even Mahatma Gandhi despairs of uniting?

The first of the invasions of India by the Moslems began in 664. As the Arabs in the west were

crossing the Straits of Gibraltar in 711, their co-religionists in the east reached the mouth of the Indus, having come down through Afghanistan as did Alexander a thousand years before. But just as the Moslem tide was checked at Tours in 732, so in the east Islam was stopped and expelled from India in 750, not to reënter that land for a century and a half. As for China, had it not been for the rise only four years before the Hegira of the glorious T'ang Dynasty (618-907), which stands for the zenith of China's military and cultural development, what would have been her fate? One can only wonder whether the barriers of the Pamirs and the T'ien Shan would have stopped the warriors of Islam. As it was, the Chinese power in Central Asia, after a century of contest with the Arabs, was broken by an Arab-Tibetan alliance at the battle of Atlah in 751. Since Islam was weakened at that juncture by civil war between the houses of Omar and Abbas, the military invasion of Chinese Turkestan was never attempted. Nevertheless Mohammedans filtered into northwest China from that time on and there are today twenty millions of them within the borders of China Proper, while Turkestan is almost entirely Moslem. Arab traders also went by sea to South China until they were so strong a foreign element that in 758, aroused by Chinese maltreatment, they arose and massacred some thousands of the native inhabitants of Canton.

We have seen the stemming of the Moslem tide in Europe, in India, and in Central Asia almost simultaneously. Meanwhile there had been flourishing in Persia before the Mohammedan Conquest several other religious movements almost ignored by western historians, possibly because in comparison with Islam they were unaggressive and because their influence is not as easily traceable today. Three groups contested influence at the Persian court: the Mazdeans—followers of the prophet Zoroaster; the Manicheans—disciples of Mani who was slayed alive about 275 A.D.; and Christians of the Assyrian (incorrectly called Nestorian) branch of the church. Partly inspired by missionary zeal, partly to escape persecution, small groups of all three creeds during the first half of the seventh century made their way across Central Asia to the tolerant court of T'ang Dynasty in China. The Moslem Conquests drove still larger numbers to this eastern haven. It is not yet possible to estimate the total effect of these pilgrims on history, for we know too little about them. It has been suspected that some of the differences between Chinese and India Buddhism result from the absorption by Chinese Buddhism of these three foreign sects. However this may be, Christians and Manicheans did leave a definite impress on Central Asia, for a time practically supplanting spirit worship among the Tatars. They certainly toned

down the warlike spirit of those nomads. And to one group, the Uigurs, they gave the first Tatar writing in history by adapting their own Syriac alphabet. This made possible the records which are only just being recovered from the sands of the desert to shed light on the Central Asia of the eighth to the tenth centuries. The Uigurs passed on this alphabet to the Mongols and the Manchus, and a Uigur Christian woman gave birth to Genghis Khan, Emperor of All Men.

Before leaving the Moslem Age we should remind ourselves that our semi-barbaric Charlemagne exchanged letters and gifts with the highly cultured Haroun-al-Raschid of Arabian Nights' fame. While Charlemagne was trying to feed the feeble light of Roman civilization in Europe, and Haroun listened to the tales of Scheherazade, the greatest poets of China were composing those exquisite images in verse which are today being done into most of the languages of Europe. Chinese and Persian painting were coincidentally enjoying heydays and were mingling on the Central Asian plateau. Buddhism, moreover, which had flourished in India for a thousand years, was being driven out of its first home to live anew in the lands of its missionary enterprise: Burma, China, and Central Asia.

Most General History texts make much of that political fabric which was neither Holy, nor Roman, nor Empire. Far more easily remembered as a series of landmarks are the adventures of those roving Northmen who, between the seventh and eleventh centuries, touched the British Isles, Russia, Iceland, France, Greenland, Finland, and Sicily. If the Holy Roman Empire is to be remembered at all, let it be as an example of the pettiness of Europe while other regions were experiencing great things. Two years before Otto effected that nondescript creation, China pulled herself out of half a century of disorder and showed her powers of renaissance in the Sung Empire (960-1280) with its neo-classical scholarship reminding us of the European cultural Renaissance a few centuries later. It comes as a shock to find that a Chinese Minister of State, Wang An Shih, attempted in the eleventh century reforms of which twentieth century Socialists would be proud. In the Islamic world the opposite process of decomposition was going on and we find Omayyad caliphs in western Africa, Fatimites in Egypt and Abbasids at Bagdad. In India there was started in 977 by Mahmoud Ghazni, son of a Turkish slave from Central Asia, a series of Mohammedan invasions from which the country had little respite until the coming of the British.

#### THE MONGOL TIDE

The Crusades have been made much of in western history. Today the movement is being re-evaluated

with a tendency to discount the religious fervor of the "iron men" and emphasize the failure of feudal Europe to provide enough man-sized jobs to keep knights errant at home. Whatever interpretation be placed on the Crusades, they remain one of the greatest landmarks in history and they certainly contributed to the cultural awakening of Europe. Yet it seems to me that the prime emphasis in teaching the twelfth to the fourteenth centuries should be placed on that far more extensive and effective movement, the Mongol tide. While Richard and Saladin were exchanging courtesies and blows under the walls of Jerusalem (1189) there was born on the banks of the Kerulen River in far off Tatory a babe destined to become by the power of his own personality the "Emperor of All Men."

The Mongol tide brought East and West together to a degree hitherto unknown because hitherto impossible. The caravans which plied between Samarkand and the Chinese capital had been greatly handicapped by lack of roads, by highway robbery, and by customs barriers. The Mongols changed all that: built military roads, made brigandage unprofitable, and obliterated all boundaries between the Pacific and the Carpathians. For the first time in history, comparatively unrestricted intercourse was possible between Europe and Far Asia. A trip from Syria to China by land was really easier in the thirteenth century than it is today.

In school histories we get a passing mention of Marco Polo (his father and uncle are usually ignored); but what of the other travellers both before and after the Polos, whose accounts of adventures must have whetted the wanderlust of that illustrious family? We hardly give a correct impression of the age without showing that the century 1250-1350 was full of names of priests, diplomats, merchants and kings who, willingly or unwillingly, performed the difficult pilgrimage of the Karakorum of Genghis or the Khanbaluk of his grandson Kubilai. Some of the friars went with purely missionary motives; others bore diplomatic commissions aiming at a Mongol-European alliance against Islam, a scheme which, but for the untimely death of Kuyuk Khan, might conceivably have succeeded. Still other pilgrims, notably the Russian Grand Duke Yaroslav and the Armenian King Haithon, were forced to go to swear allegiance to their Mongol overlord. Some of these travellers left records, inferior to that of Marco Polo but still of great value. Arabic literature, more mature than European at that time, has given us the notes of Ibn Batuta which describe from a refreshingly different point of view the Asia of the Mongol Era.

But of all who made the great trek, was there none quite as romantic as the white haired Chinese priest, Ch'iu Ch'ang Ch'un, who was summoned to Karak-



orum by Genghis Khan to explain to him the way of life! At the age of seventy-three, undaunted by the prospect of a thousand mile journey, he left on his missionary errand. Disappointed *en route* by the news that Genghis Khan had gone west on an expedition, the old priest courageously carried on, crossed the Altai Range in midwinter by ten thousand foot passes, and caught up with the Conqueror in Afghanistan. The Grand Khan was greatly impressed by the old priest's gospel of love and ordered a scribe to set down for the guidance of himself and his sons the drastic doctrine that no permanent empire can be built on slaughter and the only enduring foundation is love of one's fellow men. After another three thousand mile journey home and an absence of three years, Ch'ang Ch'un spent his last years at Khanbaluk (Peking) in a temple given him by a grateful master. He died in the same year as did Genghis, who, it is sad to relate, never went so far as to put into practice the message of peace and good will.

There is another story which sheds light on the Mongol Era, the tale of a Christian pope of all Asia, and him a Chinese. Marcus and Sauma, two Chinese Christian priests, set out from Khanbaluk about 1287 on a pilgrimage to Jerusalem. Wars kept them in Mesopotamia where Marcus became *Katholikos of Seleucia*—the center of the Assyrian church—and hence head of the Christian church throughout Asia Major. Mar Yaballaha III, as he was now called, sent his friend Sauma to Europe on a mission to effect an alliance with the Pope of Rome and the King of the Franks against their common enemy, the Mohammedans. Sauma seems to have interested Edward the First of England and Philip le Bel of France; but alas, there was no Pope in Rome, so after celebrating Easter in the Eternal City, he returned home, not quite empty handed however, for he had begged as relics "one small fragment of Our Lord Messiah and a portion of the veil of Our Lady Mary."

Thus the thirteenth century, sometimes considered rather bare, can be made to glow with romance by studying it from a world point of view. Two parallels may help to fix dates. In 1215 when stubborn Norman John was being forced to sign *Magna Charta*, Genghis Khan was taking Peking. The desert-born nomad had an appreciation of the culture that was not his by birth, and he at once chose advisers from among the best Chinese statesmen and artisans. Quite a contrast with John who thought he could rule alone. The close of the century is marked by another group of great names: while Marco Polo was serving Kubilai Khan in China, Othman was establishing the Ottoman Empire, and Rudolph the House of Hapsburg; Dante in Italy had not yet commenced the *Divine Comedy*.

#### THE AFTERMATH

Western Europe was little affected, even indirectly, by the Mongol tide; consequently England and France found diversion in a Hundred Years' War. The rest of civilization however was busy rebuilding in the ebb of the Mongol tide. The Turks pushed their invasion of Europe past Constantinople and well into the heart of Hungary. Timur, or Tamerlane, descendent of a minister to Genghis' son Jagatai Khan, built himself an empire reaching from the Pamirs to Suez, and raided the Punjab in India. In China a Buddhist priest led his countrymen in a successful revolt against the decadent Mongols and established the Ming Dynasty. This same dynasty before it was half a century old gave China her only navigator worthy of the name, Admiral Cheng Ho, who was sent on a punitive expedition to the South Seas in the course of which he sailed through the Straits of Malacca, raided Ceylon, and coasted East Africa to Mogadisho. Another half century and the Portuguese crossed his tracks in their search for a sea route to India. In Central Asia meanwhile a number of independent Khanates had replaced the once unified Empire. Russia had shaken off the Tatar yoke, and under the Romanov dynasty was beginning to play a part in world affairs once more.

#### MODERN HISTORY

When we come to modern history the parallels are largely concerned with outstanding figures. Many students fail to grasp such a coördinating fact as that Adam Smith, Samuel Johnson, Voltaire, Frederick the Great, Catherine the Great, Kant, Goethe, and Napoleon, all overlapped the lifetime of George Washington. From Asia might be added the names of Ch'ien Lung, world conqueror and patron of Chinese literature, who ascended the throne in the year of Washington's birth and died in the year that Washington died. Going back to the sixteenth century we note that Baber was establishing the Mogul Empire in India while Henry VIII was enacting his matrimonial drama in England, while Charles V raged at the support given to the heretic Luther by certain German princes, and while Suleiman the Magnificent was threatening Vienna. About the year 1600 Shakespeare was playing for Queen Elizabeth, Henry of Navarre was saving France from religious wars; Akbar the Great brought the Mogul rule to its zenith; and the Chinese Emperor Wan Li was weakly fending off Mongols on the north, Manchus on the northeast, a Japanese invasion of Korea under the famous Hidyoshi, and the beginnings of European commercial invasion on the south. Less than half a century after these events the Manchus conquered China while Cromwell was driving Charles I from England and

Richelieu was dictating to Europe. The year 1700 offers a panorama consisting of William of Orange enthroned on the Bill of Rights in England, Louis XIV still *le grand monarque*, Peter the Great trying to enlighten Russia, Aurungzeb starting the Mogul Empire on its decline, the Chinese emperor K'ang Hsi rivalling his contemporary Louis XIV in his patronage of literature. It is noteworthy that the critical thinking of eighteenth century Europe has a counterpart in China where rigid censorship of political expression turned many able minds toward criticism of China's classical heritage.

#### NATIONALISM AND INTERNATIONALISM

The course of the nineteenth century brought ever closer contacts between peoples. Our high school texts do touch upon the expansion of Europe into Asia and Africa, and the spread of the epidemic of nationalism into India, Japan and China. But there is still a tendency to deal with non-European events as merely the extension of the life of Europe rather than as contacts between great peoples and races, not equal perhaps in military power, but equally indispensable to the progress of civilization. This attitude, mis-called a "Nordic complex," is merely the orientation of an isolated mind, whether Nordic, Latin or Chinese, cut off willfully or by chance from intimate contacts with differing peoples.

There came the Great War. China, Japan and India were drawn into the vortex. There followed a League of Nations including every race and every

creed, in which East and West have met and found so much in common that cessation of coöperation now seems almost impossible. The twentieth century is bound together by air routes from London to Melbourne, from Berlin to Tokyo, from Rome to Buenos Aires. The oceans have been hopped; the barriers of High Asia begin to look a little less formidable as obstacles to intercourse. In such a day we can hardly afford to continue giving our children a half history of the development of the modern world family. What is desperately needed is a new type of textbook which will omit or pass casually over much that has appeared important in European squabbles and concentrate on the development of great civilizations in different parts of the world, civilizations which, although they are as yet far from blended into a common world culture, must necessarily develop in the direction of a greatly increased interchange of ideas between the people of the earth. That process can be hastened and eased over its rough spots only by increased understanding between races, creeds and nations, and that understanding is not going to be attained as long as American children are taught that World History does not include non-Europeans except as they have been caught in the toils of European expansion, and that the only culture worthy of propagation is that of the white man. To the end that world wide understanding and appreciation may be hastened these sketchy suggestions for the broadening of General History courses are offered.

## Ancient History via Main Street

By HENRY L. FARR  
Manchester, Connecticut

In my assignment and plan book are listed several aims, appreciations, and concepts which I use as the basis of discussion in ancient history during the week preceding the semester examination. I determined to experiment this year and instead of handing out ready-made impressions. I asked the class to write out their own impressions. The first papers were a disappointment for they contained nothing but lists of important events. But when the pupils understood what I wanted they handed in lists of impressions which formed the best review I have had in any class.

The greater number of the papers dealt with the limitations and discomforts of ancient people. I presumed that such impressions were gained from a drawing in the textbook. I asked one of the boys who had commented on the easier life of present

times to list several modern conveniences and he suggested that he could draw a picture to contrast to one in the book. In a moment another suggested an illustration of life in the woods, before even the cave house had been thought of. It was only a moment before several others wanted to try their hands at drawing and then the entire class went to work. Each one drew a picture to illustrate what he believed life in pre-cave days was like. Many had a wealth of details. And in addition to the drawing each wrote a composition dealing with that period of time. Each member of the class was doing some original work which required reflective thought of a deep nature.

They were not satisfied with the textbook's drawing of cave days so each made his own drawing and wrote his own paper of that period. The next step

was to depict the present by drawing a sky-line and front of a modern main street with the shops and offices appropriately labelled. We had dentists, grocers, bakers, and all the others located just like a real town. One boy drew a big laugh for having a blacksmith shop on the third floor over a law office. The class was quick to see anything unreal about the drawings. Finally, of their own accord and suggestion, many pupils drew illustrations of furnished rooms in an apartment house. And while the pupils were making their drawings I put my own ideas upon the blackboards with the entire classes as critics. No professor in college was ever so alert as they and no omission or false detail escaped their notice. We climaxed the matter by sending two girls out to take an exact census of the shops and offices in the town.

Here was a review that made a lasting and valuable impression upon every member of the class.

And the impressions sunk in for did not each pupil form his own in which he would surely have confidence and faith? In creating the drawings and compositions every pupil had been busy with original and individual thought and the result was a set of impressions more valuable to each pupil than any list I could hand out to them.

I am sure that despite the depressive times in which we live each pupil sees more of value and interest around him than he did before. And I feel sure that the problems and values of the future will have a more balanced and sensible relation to each one. They have measured and passed judgment upon the past and the present for themselves. One boy made this remark, "It looks to me as if we had about everything we need now but most of us just don't know how to use some things we have." Isn't that about as good as anything in the matter of philosophy?

## Present Trends and Current Practices in the Teaching of the Social Studies in the Elementary School

By MARY HARDEN

*Horace Mann School, New York City, and*

CLARA SCRANTON

*Supervisor of Art, Cleveland Heights, Ohio*

In reviewing outstanding courses of study, textbooks, and other educational literature written at the beginning of the present decade in the field of social studies one finds that the advanced thinking presented in these writings has, in many instances, become current practice. One remarkable educational change brought about through the writings of educational experts and the practices of skilled teachers in this period is that the center of attention has shifted to the child as the most important factor in the educative process. Today is a day for interpreting education in the terms of the child, and of determining those phases of education which at all times make his life most meaningful and worth while. As Dewey says, "The child is the sun about which the appliances of education revolve; he is the center about which they are organized."

At the present time the salient theme in educational discussions, lectures, and books is that of the best course to follow in making possible the all-round development of the individual and the bringing out of his many potentialities. It is this phi-

losophy which has had an important influence in determining the necessity for a new kind of education in the elementary school.

To the end of making school life more real and meaningful class room procedures began to unify the materials of learning. School programs began to include only those subjects which had a definite relation to children's interests. These subjects which were selected in relation to children's interests were not presented as organized subject matter, but were developed in terms of problems which seemed vital to the child. In using children's interests as a point of departure for developing and formulating an educational program teachers soon found that the separate subject matter scheme of education and the complicated arrangement of the daily school program into short class periods decreased the child's opportunity for finding a complete answer to his problem. Teachers by accepting the popular educational principle of allowing children's interests to determine the content of the curriculum began to eliminate the set school program



which divided the school day into class periods varying in length from ten to thirty minutes. In the early grades of the elementary school they began to break down the "compartmentalization" of subject matter. According to the philosophy of the leaders and the practices of the teachers in this movement the new school should organize itself around the child's intention to learn; the old school had organized itself around the intention of the teacher to teach him. They believe that the child's intention to learn brings about an inner integration of his whole being upon the problem at hand.<sup>1</sup> Although many teachers used children's interests as the basic material for building school programs, it was not long before some teachers saw the need for evaluating these interests in terms of the social needs of the child and the needs of the society in which he is to live. An interesting study of children's interests in the kindergarten and first grades was made at Teachers College.<sup>2</sup> The study shows that the social studies interests group naturally around the following topics:

1. Life in the home.
2. Neighborhood activities.
3. Local industries.
4. Modern methods of transportation and communication.

By using the social interests of small children, course of study makers have eliminated from our school programs in the early grades the intensive study of a composite Primitive Man, Indian, Eskimo, and Pilgrim.

In the modern school the child follows his interests in a social setting. He is encouraged to engage in activities which allow him to develop the art of living with other people. He participates in numerous activities which relate to his membership in various social groups. He learns about the activities of the family group and his responsibilities toward that group. He becomes acquainted with the school and begins to realize his social responsibility in this larger social group. As the child enlarges his range of social experience he sees the neighborhood community with its numerous social implications, in relation to himself and other members of his group. The teacher who is alert to the educational needs of children endeavors to extend the area of their immediate interests thereby, bringing them into contact with many new and varied experiences.

At present there is a growing tendency among curriculum builders and educational writers to emphasize the serious need for the study of community life in America. Professor Harold Rugg in his recent book, *Culture and Education in America*, says, "In fact, from the beginning of school life to the end the study of the community is an essential aspect of the content core of the curriculum."<sup>3</sup>

For many years a number of European educational programs have made the study of community culture the central theme of school instruction. The educational programs of this country have confined the study of community life to the early primary grades or made it a course in community civics on the level of high school instruction. There is a great need for an intensive study of the broader aspects of community life in the elementary school. In this way American children will be introduced to the interesting phases of American life in their own community. Every community reveals many things of vital interest to young children. From these points of interest the child can be gradually led to appreciate some of the needs of the society of which he is an integral part. In a study of the local environment the child has an opportunity to image the people of the past. Each successive generation unconsciously leaves behind it traces which aid in helping to visualize the people who lived at that time. Normal human life centers around buildings (houses, churches, community halls, post offices and other government buildings) bridges, roads, streets, conveyances, tools, clothing and numerous other objects relating to everyday life. By studying the world about him the child has an opportunity to develop an elementary interest in a changing civilization.

The following outline shows how one teacher organized material for a study of the local environment of Connecticut. The outline suggests that the study of "Community Life in Connecticut" begin with a consideration of the people in Connecticut today. This approach to the study enables the pupils to understand some of the important aspects of the economic and social life of the people of the community.<sup>4</sup>

#### COMMUNITY LIFE IN CONNECTICUT

##### A. Connecticut Today

1. Work of the people
  - a. Work in factories
  - b. Work on farms—dairy, tobacco, truck, vineyards, orchards, hay fields, poultry
  - c. Work in greenhouses, nurseries
  - d. Work in quarries, brickyards
  - e. Work at shore resorts, beaches
  - f. Run boats, trains, trolleys
  - g. Drive trucks, busses, automobiles
  - h. Work in shellfish and fish
  - i. Work in stores, offices, schools, churches, banks
2. Where the people live
  - a. In towns and cities (thickly populated centers)
    - (1) type—home, factory, harbor
    - (2) location of home city in relation to nearby communities
  - b. On farms (sparsely populated areas)
    - (1) type—dairy, poultry, fruit, vegetable
    - (2) location of farms in relation to nearby communities
3. How the people travel and send their products
  - a. by automobile
  - b. By train

- c. By boat
- d. By bus
- e. By horse-drawn vehicles
- 4. How people communicate with each other
  - a. By mail
  - b. By telephone
  - c. By telegraph
  - d. By radio
  - e. By airplane
- 5. Places of interest in Connecticut
  - a. Shore resorts
  - b. State and municipal parks
  - c. Schools and colleges
  - d. National and state buildings
  - e. Museums and art galleries
  - f. Mountain and valley drives

*Note*—In teaching the above topics of the outline the teacher should avoid developing the state as a political unit. The purpose of introducing a study of "Connecticut Today" is to acquaint the pupil with life of the community in the sections of the state nearest to his home.

#### B. Connecticut in the Past

- 1. The first settlers
  - a. Who they were
  - b. Where they came from
  - c. Why they came
  - d. How they came
    - (1) by wagon
    - (2) on horseback
  - e. Experiences on the way
    - (1) winter travelers
    - (2) spring travelers
  - f. How Connecticut looked to the first settlers
    - (1) valleys
    - (2) rivers
    - (3) mountains and hills
    - (4) native plants, trees, birds, inhabitants
  - g. The Connecticut Indians
    - (1) where they lived
    - (2) names of tribes and noted chiefs
    - (3) homes
    - (4) food
    - (5) clothing
    - (6) work of the men
    - (7) work of the women
    - (8) work of the children
    - (9) customs
    - (10) how we know about them today
  - h. Where the first settlers made their homes
    - (1) setting
    - (2) available resources
    - (3) building of homes
      - (a) materials
      - (b) types of house
      - (c) workers
    - (4) neighbors
      - (a) why they came
      - (b) what they did
      - (c) qualities necessary for cooperative neighborhood membership—helpfulness, friendliness, respect for property, fair dealing, courtesy, tolerance

*Note*—In studying the topic "Early towns in Connecticut" the teacher should use the pupil's own town or vicinity as an approach in developing the various topics listed in the outline. The chronological age of the town or city does not need to interfere with its use as an approach to the topic.

- 2. Early towns in Connecticut
  - a. Location
    - (1) planning
    - (2) naming
  - b. Early occupations and industries
  - c. Coming of the highways and railroads
  - d. Men and women who helped in local growth

- e. Establishing of schools and churches
- f. Early forms of recreation and social intercourse
- g. Early government
- h. Prominent leaders in the town
- 3. Present-day evidences of past accomplishments
  - a. Highways, railroads
  - b. Buildings, monuments, tablets, etc.
  - c. Factories, homes, etc.
- 4. Comparison of Connecticut in the past and present
  - a. Appearance
  - b. Communication
  - c. Transportation
  - d. Work of the people
  - e. Needs of the people
  - f. Relation of local community to other communities in Connecticut
  - g. Relation to people outside of Connecticut

It is difficult to break the tie of tradition. Nevertheless, even in schools still bound by programs which divide the day into subject-matter periods, there is a growing tendency to break down the subject-matter lines of the social studies subjects. In the primary grades there is practically no division of the social studies subjects. The eliminating of subject-matter lines has introduced many changes in teaching procedures. The pupils with the teacher initiate the work. Through investigation, excursions, construction, painting, dramatization, writing and the like, the knowledge acquired becomes more meaningful. This new type of procedure also gives the pupils an opportunity to live and work together in a way that develops them individually and socially. It is real participation in life situations that develops initiative, independent thinking and ability to adjust easily in a social group.

In the new type of education, children are encouraged to give expression to their experiences. Children often have many fine things to express and some very fine ways of expressing them. They grow and develop through their creative experiences and their contacts with the experiences of others. Nearly all have the power to create in some field of learning, and it is the business of the school to see that opportunity for some expression is provided. One of the early forms of coöperative expression is through a composite record of a social experience. The following records of children's experiences in social studies show some types of experiences which young children enjoy recording.<sup>6</sup> The stories of the Holland Tunnel, Admiral Byrd, and the Empire State Building show how young children record their impressions of current happenings and class room activities. This reading material is an integral part of the social studies.

Horace Mann School, New York,  
Monday, January 16, 1928

Friday, January 13, we took down our house. We wanted the blocks to make a tunnel. Now we are making a nice tunnel. We call it the "Holland Tun-

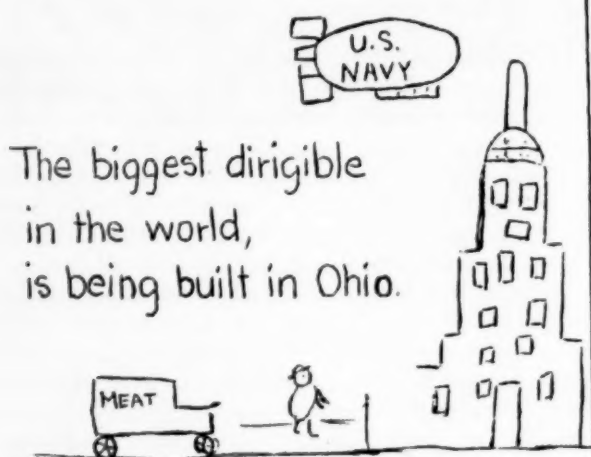
## THE NEWS

## THE WEATHER

Rain today  
50° above 0

Horace Mann School Room 116 New York N.Y. Thursday April 23, 1931

The Empire State building is finished  
It is ready for a zeppelin.



The biggest dirigible  
in the world,  
is being built in Ohio.

Admiral Byrd's dog, Igloo  
is dead.

Igloo went with his master,  
To the North Pole and the South Pole.



## BIG SALE

In the Kindergarten Room, May 1

Come and buy pretty things.



CROWNS



Dolls



Pictures



Candle Sticks

nel." We are going to make automobiles to go through it. We are going to try to make a river on top of the tunnel.

February 6, 1928. The weather today fair. 25° above zero. We are still working on the Holland Tunnel. Some of the girls are making automobiles. Vincent has come to our room from the kindergarten. He knows a great deal about stones. We are much interested in stones and we hope that he will tell us about them.

Doris is painting pictures of New York houses at the New York end of the Holland Tunnel. Some day we will paint pictures of New Jersey houses at the New Jersey end of the tunnel.

The dirigible "Los Angeles" flew to Panama. It is the first airship to fly from here to Panama without stopping.

The Holland Tunnel is finished. Jack made a dirigible and David made an airplane. They are flying over the river.

Two aviators from Germany and one from Ireland flew across the Atlantic Ocean. We had a big celebration for them. Colonel Lindbergh has a new airplane. He flew his old airplane to Washington to put in the museum.

We all took a trip through the real Holland Tunnel, and we had a very good time. One day we went to New Jersey on a ferry boat and had a picnic. We picked flowers and went exploring in the woods. We ate our lunch and made a bonfire. It was fun!

Another outstanding characteristic of the newer types of education is the respect awarded to the efforts of children in art. The following illustrations show how some of the children in the early grades of the elementary school expressed their ideas of community workers, room decoration, playhouse equipment and social studies stories.<sup>6</sup>

In the early grades of the elementary school children express their ideas in these various types of coöperative activities. Reading, writing, music, art, and health activities may be found in one unit of work. In these grades there is almost no attempt made to observe the law of continuity in the development of subject-matter. Many people do not consider this a serious defect; for they believe that continuity of child experience is the important thing to consider in developing a modern educational program.

In the integrated program of the primary grades the major portion of the material developed through the experiences of the children is related to social living. Without strained effort on the part of the teacher various aspects of the social studies subject form the core content for the school program.

In current practice, however, many units of work which have been developed through the interests of children have been carried through too



many grades. In many instances children have been obliged to accept the interests of the majority of the class thereby continuing interests which no longer possessed educative value for them. For example, one small child who attended a nursery school engaged in the activity of building a house; when she went to kindergarten she built another house. Upon entering the first grade she found another house building unit. In this grade she was considered a non-coöperative member of the group because she was not interested in repeating the activity of house-building.

Every school program should recognize the natural interests of childhood. Those interests which arise out of every day activities and investigations play an increasingly important part in the organizations of school programs, and in the lines of study pursued. These interests are essential in the planning of an educational program and they should be utilized. However, children's interests are transitory and teachers are committing a grievous educational error when they accept children's immediate interests as the criteria for developing units of work. Teachers should evaluate children's interests in terms of present and probable future needs. In other words the problem resolves itself into, how far are we to follow children's interests in building units of work and how far are we to guide children in the interests which they should follow. The teacher should use the interests of children to enrich their daily life, and also to introduce them to future experiences which will aid their future intellectual and social growth. School programs cannot be built effectively upon past experiences and present needs. They must include the predicted needs of the future.

Every day current practice is being modified by teachers who are actively engaged in teaching



PLAYGROUND OF THE BUTTERFLIES.  
SECOND GRADE

young children. The following statements indicate some of the changes which are taking place in the teaching of the social studies in the primary grades:

1. Closer relation of social studies material to the immediate needs of the child and the important social aims of education.
2. Development of "core content" which will include the minimum essentials for the primary grades.
3. Planning shorter units of work to fit the needs of many children.
4. Enriching the educative value of units of work by providing for continued enrichment of subject-matter on each grade level.
5. Evaluating children's activities in relation to social and intellectual worth.
6. Integrating class activities around the social experiences of children.
7. Studying child's environment in terms of social needs and social enrichment.

#### MIDDLE GRADES

In the middle grades of the elementary school there has not been by educators or teachers, a common acceptance of the idea of teaching the social studies as integrated material. However, in current practice many teachers are attempting to combine the teaching of the subjects of history, geography, citizenship, and related materials of other subjects into some form of composite subject-matter. There are many reasons why it is difficult to extend to the level of the middle grades of the elementary school, the new organization of subject matter and teaching techniques such as the primary grades have long been using. The following statements indicate some of the serious obstacles to the plan:



COMMUNITY WORKERS. SECOND GRADE

1. The middle grades of the elementary school do not possess sufficient flexibility in method of teaching or of subjects being taught. Many of the formal teaching techniques used by teachers in these grades are the result of a wide endorsement of the textbook method for teaching young children. Many teachers have been timid about launching a new social studies program into the schools, because of the lack of composite subject-matter textbooks for the elementary school. Such a textbook would, in the opinion of the writer, be not only unnecessary, but even undesirable. At present there are a number of splendid textbooks written by scholars and teachers for the separate subject-matter plan which can be used most effectively in a social studies program.

2. The opposition of scholars in the separate subject fields and educational specialists in elementary education has been instrumental in delaying a wider acceptance of a social studies program for the middle grades. The subject-matter modernist claims that the traditional subjects of history, geography, and citizenship, science, etc., have important contributions to make to education. He believes that this contribution can best be made through teaching the subjects separately. However, in keeping with the trend of bringing related subject-matter together for the solution of important pupil problems, the subject-matter modernist acknowledges that no good teacher in teaching one subject has ever failed to draw on the subject-matter of another if it assisted in furnishing understanding of the particular field under discussion.<sup>7</sup>

3. The inability of many teachers to select social studies subject-matter for units of work which aid in bringing out desirable subject-matter relationships has hindered the development of a social studies program for the middle grades. Very often teachers do not advance beyond forced relationships which were so in vogue when correlation was the educational "sign post."

4. The lack of scientific evidence to show educators and teachers that separate subjects are less effective in securing desirable results in learning, pupil interest, and pupil participation than integrated subject-matter has made it difficult to introduce a new program into the middle grades. Makers of school programs also need to know when, if at all, children begin to show interest in separate subjects.

5. The inability of teachers to satisfy the demands of the subject-matter modernists by including and preserving the vital aims and objectives of each social studies subject in integrated units of work has retarded the growth of a social studies program in the upper grades of the elementary school.

Notwithstanding the serious objections made by scholars and educators, the writer is firmly convinced through actual teaching experience in the class room that there are many opportunities for teaching related subject-matter in these grades. For those who are anxious to combine at least the social studies subjects in these grades, the trend is very favorable; for many educators are willing to extend the teaching of the primary type of integrated units into the beginning fourth grade. This is a trend in the right direction for those who wish to use integrated social studies units, because there is a possibility of almost complete integration in the fourth grade. This is particularly true if the core content of the social studies is based on certain aspects of the development of American life. (It might be equally true if the units were based upon the story of man in earlier civilizations.)

The child from his rich experiences in units built around community interests is now ready to extend his interests to a larger area. Many teachers find that these interests indicate a desire to know more about the world in which we live. Recent textbooks in geography indicate that the scholars in the field see the advisability of placing the study of the world community in the fourth grade.

The problem of integration is a very simple one because the child is interested in certain aspects of the world in relation to the community in which he lives. Problems raised by children in the class room open the way for developing units of work which compare the world of today with the world of the past. The following questions indicate some problems which children consider important:

1. How did the world of today become known?
2. If we cannot see how the earth curves, how do we know that the world is round?
3. How do we know that the world is going around?
4. How did Peary know when he reached the North Pole?
5. Is the South Polar region like the North Polar region?
6. What are the Pacific doldrums?

One can readily see from the foregoing questions that the fundamental principles of geography can be taught through the experiences of present and past explorers on land and sea and air. In studying the explorations of the men who have gone out in search of the possible limits of the world, it is necessary to study the size, and shape of the earth, methods of calculating distances, influence of winds on ships, behavior of the sun at the equator and various points from the equator, change of seasons, earth's revolution, etc. The fundamental principles of geography established through the experiences

of land and ocean travelers in early times, and the more recent travelers of the air remain the same. It seems entirely logical to teach these principles in the setting where they were first given meaning.

After the pupils are acquainted with the world as a whole they will probably be ready to confine themselves to a study of a definite region of their own country. A study of the modern activities of the people who live within a particular region will open up many interesting problems for study. Any discussion which centers around the problem of "How people earn their living" relates itself very naturally to a study of geography. An investigation of present day industries and occupations of a given locality can easily take up the thread of history which shows the development of the life of the people.

The following questions might be used to introduce the study of a region selected for study:

1. How do the people of this locality or region earn their living?
2. Why do people follow these occupations?
3. Who were the first people to live here?
4. Did they follow the same lines of work that the people do today?
5. What do you think were some of the problems of the people who lived here first?
6. How did they solve these problems?
7. What are some of the problems of the people who live here today?
8. How do people who live here today feel about these problems?

A unit of work which might develop from the above questions could easily introduce a pupil to a consideration of the development of the first communities of the United States. This study would naturally lead into a study of the development of other communities within our country. Here again would be an opportunity to develop related subject-matter, for in some instances the study of natural gateways, modes of travel, and communication is an integral part of the history involved.

For example, in the opening of the west by Daniel Boone, the following outline shows that geography is inseparable from history:<sup>8</sup>

1. The West
  - a. Extent
  - b. Difficulties in reaching West
    - (1) Physical barriers
    - (2) Dangers from Indians
  - c. Routes of travel
    - (1) Mountain passes
    - (2) Navigable rivers
  - d. Daniel Boone in the West
    - (1) Reasons for moving West
    - (2) Boone's route
    - (3) Founding of Boone's borough
    - (4) Extent of Boone's West



GREEK WARRIOR. SECOND GRADE

e. What the early settlers found

- (1) Furs
- (2) Deer
- (3) Buffalo
- (4) Fertile valleys
- (5) Navigable rivers
- (6) Sufficient rainfall
- (7) Warm climate

On the other hand, geography sometimes serves as an introduction to a particular period of history. The following outline shows the use of geography in developing a part of the history of the Westward Movement:

1. The People Today in the Western States
  - a. Distribution of people
    - (1) Sparsity of population
      - (a) Climate
      - (b) Surface features
      - (c) Distance from manufacturing centers
    - (2) Location of people
      - (a) Resources
        - (1) Minerals
        - (2) Water irrigation
        - (3) Lumber
        - (4) Sunshine
        - (5) Playgrounds
    - (3) Gateway cities
      - (a) Denver
      - (b) Pueblo
      - (c) Colorado Springs
      - (d) Cheyenne
      - (e) Salt Lake City
      - (f) El Paso



## b. Railroads

- (1) Santa Fe
- (2) Union Pacific
- (3) Missouri Pacific
- (4) Great Northern
- (5) Northern Pacific
- (6) Southern Pacific

## 2. The Opening of the West

## a. Early routes of travel

- (1) Santa Fe Trail
- (2) Oregon Trail
- (3) California Trail
- (4) Cape Horn
- (5) Isthmus of Panama

## b. Early Explorers and Travelers

- (1) Lewis and Clark
- (2) Zebulon Pike
- (3) Moses Austin
- (4) John C. Fremont

## c. Texas becomes a part of the United States

- (1) Early settlers
- (2) Sam Houston and Alamo
- (3) Texas becomes a part of the United States

## d. Oasis of the Desert

- (1) Mormons develop a garden in the Desert
  - (a) Irrigate lands
  - (b) Develop mines
  - (c) Build churches, schools

## e. California

- (1) Early trade
  - (a) Spanish—life in the Spanish missions
  - (b) Indians
  - (c) New England
  - (d) China
- (2) Discovery of gold
  - (a) Sutter's Mill
  - (b) Rush to the gold fields

## f. Experiences of travelers

- (1) Companies of covered wagons
- (2) Equipment and supplies
- (3) Hardships of travel
  - (a) Rate of travel
  - (b) Lack of portable food
  - (c) Buffalo herds
  - (d) Hostile Indians
  - (e) Lack of water
  - (f) Extreme heat
- (4) Hunting wild game

## g. The Pony Express and Stage Coach Travel

- (1) Reasons for establishing
- (2) Riders
- (3) Stations

The study of the interdependence of communities within the United States presents an excellent opportunity for extending the study to include various nations of the world. For example, the problem how the other continents help North America and how North America helps the rest of the world relates to the actual living conditions of the pupils in the class. A study of the interdependence of nations gives the child an opportunity to develop an intelligent understanding of the relation of his country to the other countries of the world. It also gives him an opportunity to study the past achievements of the various people of the world in relation to his own progress. The following poem, *To a Mexican Girl*, written by a fifth grade girl of the Horace Mann School shows a child's appreciation and understanding of Mexico.<sup>9</sup>

## TO A MEXICAN GIRL

Little Mexican, let's be friends  
And play together in the glens.  
Of course my dress to you seems queer,  
But your dress to me seems dear.  
But that doesn't matter.  
Though we live so very far apart  
I wish together we could dart  
In amongst your cactus thorns  
And in our ungraceful barns.  
Please write me a letter.

In developing social studies units of work for the middle grades, teachers should study the possibilities for making enrichment contacts with other school subjects. Some of the richest contacts may be found in art, music, and literature. These subjects are an outgrowth of the times and they form an integral part of man's history. Heretofore education has been concerned chiefly with man's intellectual development. As James Truslow Adams says, "Man is more than an intellectual machine, and a genuine education should help him to realize and utilize all sides of his nature. He is, for example, as much an aesthetic and emotional creature as he is a reasoning one. Indeed fundamentally he is more so. He reacted to emotion long before he did to science, history, and all of the rest of what now goes under the old term book learning. In America, the emotional and aesthetic sides of man's nature so deeply embedded in it, are starved to an extent that they are almost nowhere in Europe."<sup>10</sup>

Creating a place in the school program for the development of art and social studies contacts is in keeping with present day needs. The subject-matter of the social studies helps the individual to interpret the experiences of everyday living, while the subject of art shows the development of the artistic tendencies of people and their ability to express everyday experiences in graphic, plastic, and constructed forms. The contemporary art of any period of human development is an important index to the life of the times. The textiles, pottery, costumes, armour, buildings, stained glass windows, and other decorations reveal a wealth of material for the study of any civilization.

The following outline shows some of the general contacts existing between social studies and art, and their possibilities for aiding pupils in solving many of their problems:

In the middle grades present trends and current practices in the teaching of the social studies indicate that the child in relation to the society in which he lives is the paramount interest of the teacher. The following statements show how the school program of these grades is being modified to meet the demands of modern education.

1. A more general acceptance of the social studies subjects as core content material for

## SOCIAL STUDIES

## The Study Includes:

I. The home, school neighborhood, local, and enlarged community life of the present and past, compared and contrasted with present and past community life throughout the world.

## A. The People and their:

## 1. Homes

## 2. Food

## 3. Clothing

## 4. Government

## 5. Health

## 6. Occupations

## 7. Religion

## 8. Transportation and communication

## 9. Amusements—Recreation and Sports

## 10. Art

## 11. Literature

## 12. Education

## I. Appreciation of the present and past art of the world in:

## Architecture

## Sculpture

Painting and Minor Art such as, Utensils, Records, Costumes, Pottery, Metal work, Textiles, Furniture

## 1. Materials in the environment, methods of construction and ornamentation of the houses.

Furnishings of the house—kinds, construction, and decorative motifs.

## 2. Eating utensils, bowls, dishes. Form, material, method of making, decoration.

## 3. Styles, materials, designs, color, and handwork of costumes.

## 4. Public buildings, triumphal arches, statues of public citizens as they have been used by various peoples of the world.

## 5. Desirability of beauty and cleanliness and their relation to health, eg. Public baths of the Romans—Sanitary system of the ancient Cretans.

## 6. The climate, material available, and artistic inheritance of the people leading to such occupations as weaving, dyeing, furniture making, pottery, tool making, and building.

## 7. Influence of religion on styles of buildings and designs. Importance to different people of churches, temples, monuments, statuary, and tombs.

## 8. Designs, shapes, materials of ships, boats, and vehicles of other times as compared with modern automobiles, aeroplanes, trains, and ships.

## 9. Influence on art such as the Greek athlete in sculpture.

## 10. An important phase of the life of all people as it fulfilled the desire to express emotions and experiences in permanent form.

## 11. Literature, a form of artistic expression which was recorded in stone, papyrus, cloth, painting, the illuminated manuscript, and printing.

## 12. The place of art in the education of the children of other times. eg. The early training given to those in the Italian Renaissance period who showed talent.

## ART

## The Study Includes:

II. Creative expression on the part of the children with paint, clay, wood, metal, cloth, and other materials to develop fine arrangements in design.

## (Suggested activities)

## 1. Construction of buildings and communities.

Clay modeling of houses, etc.

Painting pictures of the houses and environments.

Construction of stage sets and properties representing the home activities.

## 2. Construction out of wood, clay, or metal. Planning and application of designs.

## 3. Clay modeling, soap carving, wood carving of figures in costume.

Designing and making costumes for dolls, puppets, plays, and pageants.

Painting pictures of people in their native environments.

## 4. Planning and constructing models for public buildings, monuments, civic and community center.

Making blue prints, pictorial maps and drawings.

## 5. Planning arrangements for beautiful and healthful rooms, buildings, parks, and play grounds.

Designing healthful clothing.

## 6. Designing and making of rugs, furniture, pottery, metal work, clothing.

## 7. Study and use of religious motifs in designs, eg. Prayer rugs, altar panels, madonna paintings.

## 8. Designing, modeling, constructing, painting pictures of various types. Using as motifs in block print designs, transportation panels.

Constructing for stage scenery.

## 9. Motifs from the recreation and sports of various periods used in paintings and designs.

Good opportunity to make use of modern activities in designing rugs, wall papers, wall textiles, wrapping papers.

## 10. Use of historical motifs from the art of any group of people in painting, designing, and construction.

## 11. The history of records worked out in designs, paintings, clay tablets, book binding, etc.

## 12. Learning by observation or actual doing the methods of the sculptor, the mural painter (eg. wall painting done by the children of Mexico), the engraver, etc.

- a more closely integrated program of school subjects.
2. The application of the educational philosophy and teaching techniques of the primary grades in the middle grades.
  3. A more comprehensive selection of social studies materials for developing units of work.
  4. A more intelligent selection and a wider utilization of related material from the fields, fine arts, literature and music.
  5. A wider use of the educative agencies of the child's environment.

In view of the present trends and current practices in the teaching of the social studies does it not seem reasonable to expect the modern school to embody in its new program those aspects of our present-day civilization which are essential to social progress? In the past, however, social studies programs have been concerned chiefly with trans-

mitting and preserving classic cultures of the past.

It is now necessary to train children to cope with the forces which determine their lives. Education must cultivate the social spirit and the power to act socially. According to Professor Dewey, the motto must be: "Learn to act with and for others, while you learn to think and judge for yourself."

<sup>1</sup> Rugg, H. and Shumaker, A., *The Child Centered School*, World Book Co., 1928.

<sup>2</sup> Reed, Mary M., *Social Studies in the Kindergarten and First Grade*, Teachers College Record, September, 1926.

<sup>3</sup> Rugg, Harold, *Culture and Education in America*, Harcourt Brace and Co., 1931.

<sup>4</sup> Harden, Mary, *Connecticut Schools*, June, 1931.

<sup>5</sup> *Horace Mann First Grade News*, Illustrated.

<sup>6</sup> State Normal School Training Schools, New Haven, Connecticut.

<sup>7</sup> Reeder, Edwin, *The Subjects of Study in the Elementary School*.

<sup>8</sup> Harden, Mary, *Changing Conceptions in the Teaching of the Social Studies*, THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, February, 1930.

<sup>9</sup> Doris McGuffey—Horace Manuscript—Horace Mann High School for Girls, May, 1931.

<sup>10</sup> Adams, James Truslow, *Our Business Civilization*, Albert and Charles Boni, New York, 1930.

## Social Attitudes and the Social Sciences in the Junior High School

By NORMAN R. HUNT  
Harvard University

### SOCIAL STUDIES HELD RESPONSIBLE

The social sciences are probably in a greater state of confusion today than any other group of subjects taught in the junior high school. The selection of subject matter and the organization of the material selected, are both highly controversial subjects. An attempt is made in this paper to analyze the socialization function of the school and its relation to the social sciences in the belief that a clarification of this relation will aid materially in the solution of some of the problems which underlie the present confusion.

The individual must be socialized in the interest of group survival. The school is the modern group's most important single means to that end. Complete socialization, however, is an impossible, if not an undesirable, end. Nevertheless, the individual must be so conditioned that he will not merely refrain from actions which are injurious, but take an active part in affairs which will promote the welfare of the group. Unless the school contributes in a very real degree to the attainment of this end, it loses its chief justification for existence. As C. C. Kohl has written,<sup>1</sup> "It seems a rather generally accepted principle that the primary aim of educa-

tion is to fit the individual for effective, creative, and satisfactory membership in the society in which he is destined to live. . . . The older aims of education, like general culture, formal discipline, and moral character, are being in part discarded by the social efficiency doctrine on the ground that the latter alone offers definite and predictable services toward which training may be directed."

This conception of the socialization of the pupil as the ultimate objective of education has had a profound effect on the social sciences in the junior high school, primarily because they are the social sciences, dealing, as they do, with human group life in all its varied aspects. P. L. Cox illustrates this point of view when he writes,<sup>2</sup> "Almost all progressives in education have encouraged the inclusion" (in the curriculum) "of generous allotments of time for the social sciences because the subject matter has seemed to connote social intelligence and socially desirable attitudes and behaviors." This assumption carried one step further, leads to the belief that the aim of the social sciences is identical with the socialization aim of education. H. C. Hill sets up,<sup>3</sup> as goals for the social sciences, " . . . first, to develop social attitudes and social con-



duct; second, to inculcate an understanding of the social environment, its character, needs, and problems. In a word, the end in view is to develop intelligent, unselfish, right-minded citizens." Edgar Bye<sup>4</sup> expressed this same view when, speaking at the sixty-fourth meeting of the National Education Association, he said, "We seem to be agreed that the ultimate objective of the social studies is the development of social effectives; that is, of units in the social group who have a sense of responsibility for intelligent and adequate reactions in their social environment, in order that the environment may be progressively modified while the unit is itself in the process of objective realization through self expression. . . . This statement of ultimate aim means that the social studies curriculum must be of such a character that the boy or girl who has finished the course will be prepared to participate intelligently and adequately in the social relationships and activities of life."

It is highly significant that the last important committee report was that of the Committee on History and Education for Citizenship. The extent to which the goal of effective citizenship has become associated with the social sciences is clearly illustrated by the objectives which that committee listed:<sup>5</sup>

"1. The supreme aim in the teaching of history and social science is to give positive direction to the growth of those mental and moral qualities of children which, rightly developed, constitute the basis of the highest type of citizenship.

"2. We gladly acknowledge that all sound training, through whatever feature of the school curriculum, contributes helpfully to this desired end; but we are nevertheless convinced that the historical training affects the result more directly."

The third objective was a statement in more specific terms of the meaning of "historical training."

#### DIFFICULTY OF ATTAINING SOCIAL OBJECTIVES

This association of the citizenship objective of education with the social sciences has been widely accepted as legitimate. It has been assumed, not merely that the social sciences should contribute to the attainment of this end, but that the social sciences should, virtually, assume full responsibility. As a result a great deal of dissatisfaction has been expressed with existing courses because of the quite justifiable conviction that they are ineffective in attaining this objective. The courses, critics have said, are encyclopaedic, loaded with details—names, places, dates, events. The emphasis is on factual material. Success is measured, not by improvement in civic attitudes or behaviors, but by the degree to which pupils are able to commit to

memory this wealth of details. The details for the most part relate, not to the present, but to the long dead past. Furthermore, the separate social sciences as taught in the junior high school are divided by rigid and unnatural subject boundaries which inevitably, so critics have said, create an atmosphere of artificiality and remoteness from life as it is experienced by the pupil.

As a result of these criticisms many experiments have been made in recent years to reorganize the old subjects. But, though these experiments have taken many different forms, they have all been dominated by the desire to improve the social or civic effectiveness of the social sciences. The investigation conducted by J. Montgomery Gambrill clearly reveals this tendency. He summarizes the situation as follows:<sup>6</sup> "The dominant ideas in the choice of curriculum materials seem to be everywhere training for citizenship and meeting the demands of contemporary society. One constantly meets such expressions as 'what it means to live together in organized society,' and the need of developing qualities 'essential to participation in our society' (Marshall); the necessity for 'understanding our present social situations and institutions,' 'problems and issues of contemporary society,' 'the objective analysis of social needs' (Rugg); civic attitudes, ideals, habits, skills, and intelligence (Oakland, California); providing the pupil with 'an understanding of our present social situations and institutions' and training them 'to participate in the various social activities and situations of our republican government, now and in the future' (Detroit, Michigan); 'to prepare students to function as citizens' (Long Beach, California); 'The one and only purpose of history and the social sciences (including geography) is to train our young people in practical good citizenship—in how to coöperate with one's fellows—in how to lead the group life,' says Dr. Barnard in the Pennsylvania course. . . . If the curriculum makers raise the question of values to be derived from the study of history, or of government, they are very likely to approach the problem with reference to certain supposed social needs, and to ask how the subject in question can contribute to these particular needs."

This adoption of the socio-civic aim of education by the social sciences has brought about the present confusion because the task of educating for good citizenship is extremely complex, loaded with many unique and as yet unsolved problems, and because the inherent limitations of the social studies make impossible the assumption of such a task.

#### DEFINITION OF TERMS

The first named factor is at present the largest and most firmly imbedded wrench in the social sci-

ence machinery. How can we construct courses aimed at the development of better civic attitudes and behaviors until we have arrived at an understanding of our terms? How can courses be constructed until we know what attitudes and behaviors are desirable in the good citizen? Once we have defined our terms, clarified our concepts, listed our aims as specifically as possible, we still face the problem of discovering the most effective procedures and materials for attaining the ends we have enumerated.

Many different terms have been used to characterize the desirable outcomes of all education which is directed specifically at socializing the individual. Ultimately, of course, the intention is to affect behavior. But the school can not directly affect behavior except while the individual is in the school building and under the control of school authorities. To have the lasting effect desired, the school must mold those intangibles which do affect behavior. The term most often used in this connection is "attitude." The assumption is that if we can produce attitudes which are desirable, the attitudes will, perforce, produce desirable behaviors. Consequently, if thinking in the social science field is to be clarified, it is important to consider the perplexing but highly significant problem of the nature of attitudes.

About this problem there has grown up in recent years an extensive though controversial literature. Sociologists and psychologists as well as educators have found the concept a helpful one. The chief difficulty lies in securing agreement on the matter of definition. It would be possible at this point to list sixteen definitions each of which would be different, in some degree, from the others. But it is not necessary for the purpose of this paper to enter into a discussion of distinctions which are quite often more superficial than real. There is enough unanimity to enable us to arrive at a satisfactory definition so long as it is understood that, from an academic point of view, complete agreement has not been reached.

The three definitions which follow have been selected because they combine the best thinking in the field with clarity of expression.

Ellsworth Faris writes,<sup>7</sup> ". . . an attitude is a tendency to act. The term designates a certain proclivity, or bent, a bias or predisposition, an aptitude or inclination to a certain type of activity. The word is sometimes used to designate the muscular set when the act is imminent, but it can not be so limited. For as men use the word and as we deal with men there is a need to speak of a man's attitude when there is no behavior imminent. Even in moments of 'complacency' or calm or equilibrium . . . we must be allowed to assume the exist-

ence of attitudes as tendencies, latent but real."

G. W. Allport<sup>8</sup> defines an attitude as "a disposition to act which is built up by the integration of numerous specific responses of a similar type, but which exists as a general neural 'set,' and when activated by a specific stimulus results in behavior that is more obviously a function of the disposition than of the activating stimulus."

L. L. Thurstone,<sup>9</sup> who is making an unusually thorough attempt to measure attitudes, writes, "I have recently defined it (attitude) for the purpose of those experimental studies as the degree of affect about any psychological object."

There are obvious differences between these definitions. The principle contrast is found between the definition of Thurstone and those of Faris and Allport. But the difference is not real. Thurstone is interested in the same psychological unit, but he is occupied with the mental content at the time the subject is *aware* of his attitude. It was included here primarily because of the word "affect" which clearly indicates the emotional element in an attitude.

Dewey<sup>10</sup> uses the term "habit" to indicate essentially the same psychological unit as is here referred to as attitude. He writes in part as follows: "The word habit may seem twisted somewhat from its customary use when employed as we have been using it. But we need a word to express that kind of human activity which is influenced by prior activity and in that sense acquired; which contains in itself a certain ordering or systematization of minor elements of action; which is projective, dynamic in quality, ready for overt manifestation; and which is operative in some subdued subordinated form even when not obviously dominating activity. . . . The essence of habit (so used) is an acquired predisposition to *ways* or *modes* of response, not to particular acts except as, under special conditions, these express a way of behaving."

Because the term habit has been so thoroughly associated, wisely or unwisely, with more or less minor mechanical actions which have been established through repetition, it would seem confusing to use it in this fashion. However, the definition does correspond to the conception here entertained and enriches the three definitions previously given.

A consideration of these descriptions enables us to list those qualities which, taken together, make up the concept of attitude.

1. An attitude is a tendency or disposition to act. It is projective and dynamic.
2. The behavior which follows is characterized more by the predisposition than by the stimulus which brings it into action.
3. When dominating the organism it is accompanied by an emotional tone.

4. It is present even when it is not dominating activity.

5. It is acquired, being built up by the integration or systematization of minor elements of *action* of a similar type.

#### IMPORTANCE OF BEHAVIOR

Most significant for education is the recognition here of the emotional and integrative aspects of these modifiable determinants of behavior. T. H. Briggs,<sup>11</sup> in a chapter on emotionalized attitudes, writes: "It was once rather generally held that the ideal was to think after the pattern of a geometrical proof, although a moment's thought would have shown that this pattern is used only for the organization of proof after conclusions have been reached. Dewey replaced and improved this ideal in his 'How We Think,' which might better be entitled, 'How a Gifted Man Thinks We Ought to Think.' Nearly all thinking, certainly that of a majority of men, is far different. It begins in feeling, is continuously colored by emotionalized attitudes, and often ends in a rationalization, itself tinged with emotions, of the position taken. In providing curricular considerations must be given to the whole of life in which feelings, especially those which tend to persist, play a no unimportant part. They move to action, directly and indirectly, they condition the reception and the interpretation of facts, and they are most influential in integrating the members of a group. On them are largely dependent our friendships and our enmities, our social happiness, and indirectly our success and failure in life. Consideration therefore must be given to the relation of the emotionalized attitudes to intelligence and to questions of their source and of means of their modification and use.

Except for purposes of emphasis it was not necessary for Briggs to refer to attitudes as being emotionalized, implying that he was dealing with one class of attitudes. Attitudes, by definition, have an emotional content, if we consider them from a subjective point of view. It is, of course, at this point that confusion has arisen. In every day speech the term attitude is often used interchangeably with opinion. But, from the point of view of this paper, such usage is not warranted if the term is to have scientific validity. An opinion is the *result* of an attitude, not the attitude itself. An opinion is an expression of belief where all the facts are not available. But the reliability of opinions varies widely. This is due, not to differences in the facts available to different individuals, but to differences in the fundamental attitudes involved. One person may have a highly intolerant attitude toward persons belonging to races other than his own. His opinion of the nature and degree of racial differences

would be very unreliable. On the other hand, the opinion of an individual imbued with an attitude of tolerance toward members of another race and a scientific attitude toward facts, would be immeasurably more reliable. The essential difference between the two men is to be found in the differences in their respective attitudes. But the nature of their attitudes as complex psychological units is identical.

The educational significance of this conception of the nature of an attitude is to be found not only in the recognition it gives to the emotional, but also to the integrative aspect of an attitude. We have said that attitudes are built up through the integration of lesser elements of action of a similar sort. The individual acquires an attitude of racial tolerance, not through an academic consideration of the social value of such tolerance and the evils of intolerance, nor yet through an appreciative study of peoples of all races, though such classroom procedures are unquestionably desirable. The attitude, however, is built up through the integration in the individual's personality of countless tolerant actions in specific situations. The task for the educator, then, is to provide a multitude of situations calling for such response. Classroom procedures such as those referred to above prepare the ground, but unless provision is made for desirable actions, educational processes end when they have scarcely begun. We may have certain worthwhile understandings, but we will have little reason to believe that they will carry over into action when the specific situation arises; in fact we have evidence on every side that they will not.

If it be assumed, then, that the socialization objective of education demands that educational procedures be directed toward the modification of behavior and that behavior can only be modified through the building of certain attitudes, we are faced with the problem of determining what attitudes shall be considered desirable. A few attempts,<sup>12</sup> notably those of Mahan, Dulebohn, and Nietz, have been made to find the deficiencies, duties, difficulties, or traits of the average or ideal citizen in a semi-objective manner. Bobbit attempts to list the "abilities" of a good citizen through an introspective analysis. The results, though suggestive, are far from satisfactory. There is no list of desirable *attitudes* which has been worked out from an objective or semi-objective point of view. It is rather doubtful in the last analysis whether such a thing could be done. The list which follows is frankly subjective.

#### A LIST OF ATTITUDES WHICH WOULD SEEM TO BE DESIRABLE<sup>13</sup>

- I. Attitudes leading to tolerance of other people.
  1. An attitude of tolerance of people of other races than one's own.
  2. An attitude of tolerance of people holding other religious beliefs than one's own.



3. An attitude of tolerance of people who hold social, political, or economic beliefs which are different from one's own.
4. An attitude of tolerance of people of other nations than one's own.
5. An attitude of tolerance of personalities which are different from one's own.
6. An attitude of respect for the rights of majorities to decide certain issues.
7. An attitude of respect for the right of minorities to give expression to their beliefs.

## II. Attitudes leading to desirable modes of thinking.

1. An attitude of thinking for ones self.
3. An attitude of suspended judgment on questions about which there is insufficient evidence.
3. An attitude of respect for leadership in specialized fields of knowledge.
4. An attitude of impatience with inaccurate or emotionalized thinking.
5. An attitude of progressiveness in opposition to one of static conservatism.
6. An attitude of respect for the maxim that all men are innocent till proven guilty.
7. An attitude of suspicion of generalizations where social matters are concerned.
8. An attitude of suspicion toward newspapers, books, etc., which are apt to be biased in their point of view.

## III. Attitudes leading to social participation.

1. An attitude of coöperation in civic and social enterprises.
2. An attitude of interest in the problems of large group relationships.
3. An attitude of individual responsibility for the welfare of the community.
4. An attitude of deep concern for current social and economic injustices.
5. An attitude of coöperation with elected officials even though one opposed their election.
6. An attitude of deep concern where corruption and incompetence is displayed in public office.
7. An attitude of deep concern for the welfare of future generations.
8. An attitude of deep concern for the extent of crime.
9. An attitude of deep concern for the friction between capital and labor.
10. An attitude of interest in point of view which are different from one's own.
11. An attitude of intolerance of any unnecessary restrictions on individual liberty.
12. An attitude of hope for the possibilities of the future.

Whether all of the attitudes listed above are desirable, is, of course, a debatable question; that there are others equally important goes without saying. The point is that before measurable progress can be made in promoting the socio-civic aim of education, some such analysis must be made in order to clarify thought and direct action. But even assuming that such an analysis has been made and widely accepted, at least on all important points, we are still faced with the necessity for seeking out those educational procedures and materials which will be most effective in promoting our ends. But progress in this direction is also limited, dependant upon the development of instruments for the measurement of attitudes. We can no longer be content with setting up new objectives and then proceeding to teach the same material in the same old way,

in the benign but naïve hope that by some subtle process of alchemy our objectives will be realized. We can never know whether our teachings are effective until we have some reasonably accurate measuring device. But the task of constructing such tests is itself loaded with many unique and complex problems. The results to date are far from satisfactory. Nevertheless, in view of the short time that this movement has been under way, we may without undue optimism hope for tests of the more important attitudes in the not too distant future.

## SOCIAL STUDIES INADEQUATE TO EFFECT BEHAVIOR

Through an analysis of the socio-civic aim of education we have seen the necessity for the creation of attitudes if we are to effect the behavior of the individual after he has left school and become an active member of society. The problem, as has been pointed out, is one of establishing certain enduring dispositions to behave in ways which will promote group progress and group harmony. This task has been discussed in some detail for the purpose of indicating the complexity of the task as a whole. It is the contention of this paper that responsibility for these steps can not be assumed by the social studies because the task itself is too great for the social sciences alone. If the problem were one of giving information and creating understandings about the social order, then the social sciences might well be held responsible. But it is not. We are concerned here with the creation of dispositions which have an emotional drive and which are the result of the integration of many responses of a similar kind. This is the business of the *whole* school as a *unit*, and it must be assumed by it. The validity of this contention will become apparent, if it is not already obvious, through a brief consideration of certain attitudes listed above.

Certainly no one would question the need for more tolerant attitudes. Racial, religious, and political prejudices strike to the heart of American civilization, producing disharmony, uncoördinated action, and limited progress in the art of living together. But, though this is a problem which demands solution, it is one which can not possibly be assumed by the social studies. Bruno Lasker,<sup>14</sup> in the most comprehensive study yet made of racial attitudes in children, writes: "No school and no teacher can by some process of magic undo the totality of community influences that shape the attitudes that children acquire toward social groups other than their own. And it requires more than special lessons or the use of specific books or extra-curricular activities or 'talks' to counteract successfully what the general trend of the school organization does for social conditioning. . . . Slogans concerning the golden rule, hymns of fellowship and lessons on

Americanism may help to set an idealistic tone . . . but they are only rarely associated in children's minds with the concrete tests that will confront his social attitudes now or later in life." In the light of this opinion, what course-maker would dare proclaim that his group of "subjects" will produce better attitudes between racial groups? The problem here, let us repeat, is not one of giving informations, though informations and understandings are unquestionably needed. The task is one of creating dispositions to behave in tolerant ways. Knowledge that such actions are desirable, will not produce that result. If tolerant attitudes are to result there must first be countless tolerant *actions* followed by integration into a projective disposition. Obviously the social studies can not provide sufficient opportunity for tolerant responses to counteract the multitude of occasions for intolerant actions beyond the direct influence of the social science teacher. Every teacher of composition knows the impossibility of teaching correct speech if the habit of correct speech is practiced only in her classroom. How much more true this must be where the creation of complex attitudes is desired!

In addition to the urgent need for more tolerant attitudes, any educational program designed to promote the socio-civic aim of education must take cognizance of the equally insistent need for freedom from prejudiced, inaccurate, emotionalized crowd-thinking so prevalent today and yet so dangerous to a democratically constituted society. At a time when social, political, and economic problems are more difficult than ever before we find a widespread tendency on the part of persons in all walks of life to express opinions on subjects about which they have but the slightest information. In so far as any generalization is accurate, we may say with confidence that most people jump to conclusions, accept everything they read so long as it is in agreement with their underlying prejudices, and make sweeping generalizations without supporting evidence. About every debatable question they have their convictions; they are either for a thing or against it; there is no middle ground; they belong to one crowd or the other.

Certainly it is the business of the school to correct, so far as possible, this widely recognized evil. But it is equally obvious that it is a task altogether too difficult for any one group of subjects. There are countless opportunities in the teaching of every subject for the development of impatience with the sort of thinking here indicated. The school constantly offers occasions for the practice of suspended judgment, independent thinking, respect for leadership in specialized fields of knowledge. The social sciences are rich in material for training of this sort, but the physical sciences, composition,

literature, physical training, drawing, practical arts, and school activities should all make a decided contribution. The time a pupil spends in the social science classroom is at best small when compared with the total number of school hours. It is almost insignificant when contrasted with the time he spends beyond the influence of the school. For it must not be overlooked that the school is working against tremendous odds. Social attitudes, desirable and undesirable, are being created from earliest childhood. They are being built in genuine life situations. How pitifully inadequate the social sciences seem! Only through the organized efforts of the *whole* school can we expect measureable progress to be made. It is not a question as to what subjects or what phase of school work will contribute most. If it were we might well put the social studies at the top of the list. But that is not the point. The point is that little can be done without a school *consciously* organized as a unit directed toward clearly recognized ends along paths which have been carefully defined. And such a situation can not be achieved through the bewildered efforts of one group of subject specialists, the activities of which are more likely to throw confusion on their own fields than clarify the socio-civic field itself.

#### SCHOOL ORGANIZED TO ATTAIN SOCIAL ENDS

If, then, it is a mistake for one group of subject specialists to assume this task, what is to be done? If the socio-civic aim of education can only be attained through a school consciously organized and directed toward that end, how is such organization to be achieved? It is possible within the limits of this paper to make but a few suggestions regarding the steps that should be taken or the form this unity should take; but it is believed that these suggestions are but the logical result of the discussion which has preceded.

Before the school can be adequately organized as an agent in the process of creating more desirable citizens there is, first and foremost, an overwhelming need for a comprehensive determination of the attitudes which should be a integral part of the good citizen. Vague ideas are not enough. What is needed is a careful listing of specific attitudes, preferably arranged in the order of what would seem to be their importance. In addition to this, there is, of course, an equally important need, though far less difficult, to determine what informations and understandings the prospective citizen should have in order to perform his civic functions intelligently. It is suggested that a committee should be formed which would seek to determine these needed attitudes, informations, and understandings. This committee should not be an off-spring of the American Historical Association or

the National Council for the Social Studies. That would be but to repeat the error with which this paper has been concerned. A committee of the sort here suggested should, it would seem, be fostered by the National Education Association.

Once these objectives were determined, and the assumption is that at least a working agreement could be reached on a minimum requirement level, then subcommittees should be formed representing the various studies and activities of the school, to determine what specific contributions their subjects could make toward the attainment of *each* objective. It is, of course, at this point that the National Council for the Social Studies might make its most valuable contribution. Once the burden for the socio-civic aim of education were assumed by the whole school, as represented by the National Education Association; and once the objectives for the entire school were determined, then the social studies would be in a position to demonstrate their unquestioned value in contributing to those objectives.

It is further suggested that there should be a special department of the school organized for the express purpose of coördinating all the procedures of the school aimed at those socio-civic objectives. Albert Shields,<sup>15</sup> in an article well worth rereading, writes: "If the thesis be accepted that school experiences in general are factors in civic education, two corollaries follow. The first is that the work of no single teacher or department exclusively can ensure it, since there are obviously many contributing experiences irrespective of the subject taught, and since all the teachers in the school are concerned in them. The second, which may at first sight seem to contradict the first, is that one teacher or one department directly must undertake certain primary responsibilities for civic education which it is impossible to distribute among the teachers generally." This teacher or department would also be in charge of the student government organization of the school. More than that, it is suggested that this teacher should directly supervise all teaching in so far as it aimed specifically at the civic objectives. He would be in constant touch with developments in the field of objectives, attitude-building procedures, as well as progress in the field of attitude measurement. Without some such coördinating department within the individual school, the foregoing steps would have been taken very nearly, if not quite, in vain.

This is, admittedly, an ambitious program; but one which is certainly warranted by the goal. It is a difficult task in the United States to draw together the pedagogic talent of the country behind any

program howsoever noble in motive. But it is certainly a task worth attempting. It is not to be denied that there are a thousand difficulties and dangers in the way. But it is believed that the end would be worth the effort and the risk. If such a program were initiated the social studies would be relieved of a burden assumed, perhaps carelessly, perhaps thoughtlessly, but certainly not rightfully. They would then be able to secure a perspective which would show their relation as but a part to a greater whole. The present confusion would dissolve in an atmosphere made clear through coöperation.

<sup>1</sup> Kohl, C. C., "Educational Theory Versus the Integrity of the Social Studies," *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, XXI, 7 (November, 1930), 324-327.

<sup>2</sup> Cox, Philip W. L., *The Junior High School and Its Curriculum*. New York: Charles Scribners Sons, 1929, p. 61.

<sup>3</sup> Hill, H. C., "The Supervision of the Social Studies," Chapter VII, *The Supervision of Secondary Subjects* by W. L. Uhl. New York: D. Appleton Company, 1929, p. 305.

<sup>4</sup> Bye, Edgar C., "Making the Contributions of the Social Studies Effective," *Proceedings of the 64th meeting of the National Education Association*, 1926, p. 660.

<sup>5</sup> Schafer, Joseph, "Report of Committee on History and Education for Citizenship," *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, XII, 3 (March, 1921), 87-93.

<sup>6</sup> Gambrill, J. M., *Experimental Curriculum-Making in the Social Studies*. Philadelphia: McKinley Publishing Company, 1924, p. 47.

<sup>7</sup> Faris, Ellsworth, "Attitudes and Behavior," *The American Journal of Sociology*, XXXV, p. 220-225, 1929, p. 221.

<sup>8</sup> Allport, G. W., "The Composition of Political Attitudes," *American Journal of Sociology*, XXXV, pp. 220-225, 1929, p. 221.

<sup>9</sup> Thurstone, L. L., "A Commentary," p. 192-196 in *Statistics in the Social 1930 Studies*, S. A. Rice (Editor). Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.

<sup>10</sup> Dewey, John, *Human Nature and Conduct*. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1922, p. 40-42.

<sup>11</sup> Briggs, Thomas H., *Curriculum Problems*. New York: Macmillan Company, 1926, Chapter II, p. 51-61.

<sup>12</sup> Rugg, Earle U., *Curriculum Studies in the Social Sciences and Citizenship*. Greeley, Colorado: Colorado State Teachers' College, 1928, Education Series, No. 3, Chapter III, p. 13-29.

<sup>13</sup> The author is indebted to Professor J. J. Mahoney of Boston University for many valuable suggestions which have been incorporated in this list.

<sup>14</sup> Lasker, Bruno, *Race Attitudes in Children*. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1929, p. 303.

<sup>15</sup> Shields, Albert, "Viewpoints in Civic Education," *Teachers College Record*, XXVI, 10 (June, 1925), pp. 827-845, p. 837.

Dale Warren has an appreciative article on Gamalief Bradford, the historian, in the January number of the *South Atlantic Quarterly*. Mr. Bradford gave a new life to historical writings, not only by recreating the past but also by refusing to debunk or whitewash the makers of history. Preferring to let facts, once unravelled, speak for themselves, he did not have recourse to the irony which Strachey used to the distortion of fact, but he undertook to show rather the humanity of his subjects.



# Two Class Projects in Medieval History

By FLORENCE BERND

*Lanier High School for Boys, Macon, Georgia*

One of the greatest difficulties encountered by ninth grade boys launching out for the first time into the vast reaches of medieval history, is the recognition of the contemporaneousness of persons and events in the various countries that are presented for their consideration. At best the lay-out of the average high school text for this particular segment of world life is inevitably confusing. Necessarily there must be separate treatment for such far-flung institutions as the church and feudalism, for such revolutionizing movements as the Arab conquests and the crusades, for such important and determining developments as the rise of national states, but unless great care is exercised there is a tendency on the part of the student to pigeon-hole each subject in such a way as to lose all except local perspective and to feel himself engulfed in a maelstrom of amazingly mixed facts and conditions.

To illustrate let us assume that a chapter entitled "The Papacy and the Empire 962-1273 A.D." has just been completed. On the threshold of the next chapter the student is confronted with the date 1095 and Clermont. His natural reaction voices itself in the protest, "Why I thought we had passed that date." Or suppose there have been swiftly successive assignments on England from the Norman conquest through Edward III, on France from Hugh Capet through Philip the Fair, for Spain and for the Empire during the period, through all of which the boy is nimbled along at that distracting pace one is forced to follow in these days of rapid and extensive teaching until the resultant is a patchwork jumble that is both wearisome and meaningless. The problem therefore sets itself of finding some way to consolidate the scattered, fragmentary bits of information into a world composite.

Perhaps the method most in vogue has been to chart on blackboard or in notebook. This is helpful but to the average adolescent of the present, hectic age it is more or less lifeless. What he wants is action and in default of that at least a semblance of actuality.

It was in an effort to visualize and panoramize for the student in a more vivid degree various cross sections of the medieval period that the following scheme was devised with the hope—to paraphrase a first grade classic—that if he saw it with his eyes and heard it with his ears, a piece might fall on his brain.

For a concrete example of the mode of procedure, let us take the thirteenth century. After all textbook material and parallel reading for this particular period had been exhausted, a copy of "The Thirteenth, Greatest of the Centuries" by Walsh was brought into the classroom. The class was then asked to show what justification could be made for such a title and to find some way to symbolize concretely the proof, if there was any. Several days were allowed for preparation, boys working individually or in groups as they chose. When the reports were finally submitted at the close of the time limit, the one accepted bore the title "The Stride of the Thirteenth Century" and called for a beaver-board staircase, each step of which, representing a decade, should support figures of the individuals or monuments representative of those years.

The plan once adopted, the class as a whole suggested who and what should be depicted, in every case the choice being substantiated by facts. Assignments were then made to various members of the class who volunteered or consented to accept them for portrayal, with the understanding that the representations were to be done from some authentic or at least representative source and that each character should bear, if possible, some emblem of his achievement.

The search for proper models was as instructive as any other part of the proceedings. Though Moses Maimonides and Dandole only edged over into the century, the class was reluctant to omit them so they were voted a place on the edge of the first step, the former with his Golden Ladder of Charity, so appropriate for present day conditions, being taken from an illustration issued in connection with the *Jewish Encyclopaedia* and the latter, because of the lack of a true portrait, from Bordon's *Presentation of the Ring to the Doge*. St. Francis was copied from the statue by Lucca della Robbia in the church of Santa Maria delli Angeli in Assisi and St. Dominic from the terra-cotta by Andrea della Robbia in the piazza of Santa Maria Novella in Florence. St. Thomas Aquinas was taken from his figure in Zurbaran's *The Doctors of the Church*. Dante was reproduced from the fresco in the National Museum of Florence and because no portraits of Cimabue could be found, he was represented by his famous Madonna. A picture of Roger Bacon was found in the *Catholic Encyclopaedia* while Jenghiz Khan stepped out of an an-

nouncement pamphlet of the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*. Tannhäuser caused a search through various books of the opera to emerge finally from a gut-schein of Eisenach issued in 1921. John of England came from one of the pictures in Longman's Historical Series, Philip Augustus from an engraving of that monarch before the battle of Bouvines. Edward I of England was culled from Traill's *Social England* and Innocent III from a photograph of his tomb in St. John Lateran. Louis IX was taken from a thirteenth century illuminated manuscript reproduced in the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, while the Emperor Frederick II was fashioned after the figure of a king shown in a plate from a German history of costume. Marco Polo lived again from a mosaic portrait at Genoa, while Kublai Khan came from a Chinese engraving, both found in an edition of *The Travels of Marco Polo*. A simple cardboard construction resplendent with crayon-colored rose window, stood for Amiens Cathedral. A university student and a crusader came from textbook cuts and so on through a long list that showed soldier and statesman, peasant and feudal lord, painter and sculptor, friar and pope, clerk and conqueror, each contributing to the world's work in his own way.

There was fun as well as labor in the making. Things sometimes stalled but in the end there was a feeling of real achievement and the sense of isolation was dispelled by seeing the nationals of various countries standing side by side on the same chronologically international step.

The second project, a study of Kaulbach's "The Era of the Reformation"<sup>1</sup> from the wall of the New Museum in Berlin, was used to show more forcefully that great movements have their antecedents deep-rooted in the past and culminate as a result of many and varied forces and influences. The setting will be recalled—Luther, the central figure with upheld, open Bible, a background with Wicklif, John Hus, Peter Waldo, Savonarola, Arnold of Brescis, and other forerunners of the Reformation. Close to Luther stand Calvin and Zwingli, Justus Jonas and Bugenhagen, while at the sides and in the foreground various individuals form groups of writers, scientists, artists, statesmen, rulers and military leaders, all the great dominating personages of the epoch and some of the less well known.

A large reproduction of the fresco was hung in front of the class. The students were told that having finished the usual routine study they would now view the Reformation from the standpoint of the picture. The class showed great elation when some of the most familiar characters were recognized off-hand—Luther, Columbus, Queen Elizabeth, Gutenberg, Dante, Copernicus, Galileo and

Gustavus Adolphus. Each boy was allowed as far as possible to choose the character whom he was to represent and give cause for his appearance. For patriotic reasons, or perhaps more accurately from a desire to get by with little effort, there was great clamoring for Columbus. In the main it was not difficult to get the necessary information from dictionaries of biography and encyclopaedias found in the average high school or public library. However, the instructor found the Schaff-Herzog *Encyclopaedia of Religious Knowledge* and the *Allgemeine Deutsche Biographie* helpful.

In one way or another each individual in the picture was placed and when on the appointed day the moving finger indicated a particular person, his champion arose and presented his claims for a place in the picture.

In this way the class gained a clearer conception of the Renaissance, a visualization of a world epoch and lastly a wholesome review without being routed over the same old trodden path.

<sup>1</sup> The writer's first introduction to this picture came from that great and forward-looking teacher and historian, Lucy Maynard Salmon.

What Europe is facing in 1933 is considered by Major E. W. Polson Newman in the January *Nineteenth Century*; her major problems are those arising from the disturbed political atmospheres which are themselves the outcome of the action and reaction of two contending political forces which have been accentuated by great differences in strength between the armies maintained by one group of powers on the plea of security and that imposed upon another group as a precautionary measure; while reparations, war debts and world depression have had their own disastrous effects. The two problems which, above all others, have during the last decade given rise to the strongest current of discontent, leading to the grouping of powers, have been the Polish corridor and the frontiers of Central Europe, especially those of Hungary. After all, the only security that can be of any real and lasting value is such as is the national outcome of a considerable degree of satisfaction and contentment which is only attainable in post-War Europe by boldly facing the issue of treaty revision and risking a determined attempt to remove the cancer undermining the whole system of political peace and economic prosperity.

Doreen Warriner writes on the relations between Czechoslovakia and the Central European tariff in the January number of the *Slavonic Review*, calling attention to the fact that economic life there has been conditioned by three factors: over population, over utilization of resources, and weak conditions of transportation. Yet the little republic is well provided with raw materials; it is not a peasant state but a land of independent small holders, whose agricultural methods are in the main so varied that a type either of farmer or of method does not exist.

# Recent Happenings in the Social Studies

BY COMMITTEE ON CURRENT INFORMATION OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

HOWARD E. WILSON, PH.D., *Harvard University*

## THIRD YEARBOOK OF NATIONAL COUNCIL

The *Third Yearbook* of the National Council for the Social Studies, issued in February, 1933, edited by W. G. Kimmel of the staff of Investigation of Social Studies in Schools, is devoted to "Supervision in the Social Studies." In its 260 pages are ten articles, as follows:

Supervision of Social Studies in Detroit, by C. C. Barnes

Supervision of the Social Studies in the Secondary Schools of Tulsa, Oklahoma, by Nelle E. Bowman

The Head of Department of Social Science, by Roscoe Lewis Ashley

Notes on Working Experience as Department Head of Social Science, East High School, Rochester, New York, by Alice N. Gibbons

The Work of the Head of the Department of Social Studies in a Large City High School, by Jessie C. Evans

The Contribution of Departmental Organization in a Junior High School to the Supervision of Social Studies, by Walker Brown

Departmental Organization of the Social Studies in Secondary Schools, by Raven O. Dodge and Howard E. Wilson

A Program of Supervision in History in the Middle-Grade Division of a Teachers College, by Mary G. Kelty

Improving Instruction in the One- and Two-Teacher Schools of New Jersey through Coöperative Reorganization of the Social Studies Curriculum, by Marcia A. Everett and Fannie W. Dunn

Supervision of the Social Studies in the One- and Two-Teacher Schools of Maryland, by M. Theresa Wiedefeld.

The *Yearbook* sets a high standard for the series of publications of which it is a part. It is particularly noteworthy for the contributions to it of those people who are serving as supervisors or heads of social-studies departments and write from the viewpoint of practical experience. The *Yearbook* is sent to members of the National Council for the Social Studies; non-members may secure it from the McKinley Publishing Company, Philadelphia, for two dollars per copy.

## FUNDAMENTAL VOCABULARIES IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Two vocabulary studies have recently appeared containing data of value to teachers of the social studies. The first of the two studies is entitled, "The Determination of a Minimal Vocabulary in American History," by L. C. Pressey and S. L. Pressey, and appears in the January issue of *Educational Method* (Volume XII, Number 4). By means of a combination of scholar- and teacher-judgment and frequency count, the au-

thors have arrived at a minimal vocabulary of 384 words.

The second vocabulary study appears in the February, 1933, number of the *Journal of Geography* (Volume XXXII, Number 2). In "Fundamental Vocabulary in Elementary School Geography," Luella Cole Pressey presents the 228 words that are fundamental to the study of geography by elementary-school pupils.

The authors have also prepared tests for investigating the mastery by pupils of these essential technical terms in American history and geography.

## SOCIAL-STUDIES BIBLIOGRAPHIES

The *School Review* and the *Elementary School Journal* are publishing each month an annual annotated list of selected references on some significant phase of education. In this undertaking the *School Review* and the *Elementary School Journal* are carrying on the service formerly performed by the United States Office of Education in its quarterly bulletin entitled, *Record of Current Educational Publications*. In the February, 1933, issue of the *School Review* (Volume XLI, Number 2), R. M. Tryon has compiled an annotated bibliography on recent selected references pertaining to the social studies. Later in the year Professor Tryon will publish in the *Elementary School Journal* an annotated list of social-science references of special interest to elementary-school teachers.

## "SIX SLANTS ON THE SOCIAL STUDIES"

In the February, 1933, number of *School Executives Magazine* (Volume 52, Number 6), Will French, associate superintendent of schools, Tulsa, Oklahoma, briefly presents "Six Slants on the Social Studies." The author expresses the hope that these "slants," or generalizations, may become a common element in our social philosophy. The six important "slants" discussed are: (1) Social change is both inevitable and desirable. (2) Social and economic planning is necessary. (3) Interdependence is a fact of modern social living. (4) Coöperative endeavor is a shorter path to high levels of social welfare than is competition. (5) Tolerance must break down prejudices. (6) Human beings are more important than things.

## A NEW SOCIAL-SCIENCE PUBLICATION

The Detroit History Club, made up of 287 teachers of social studies in the public schools of that city, issued in February, 1933, Volume I, Number 1 of the *Detroit Social Science Bulletin*. The four-page issue contains a letter from Superintendent Cody to the social-science teachers of the city, a review of Beard's *A Charter for the Social Sciences*, a summary of an investigation comparing intelligence and citizenship



traits as factors of success in high school, editorials, and announcements.

Four purposes are behind the publication; it is intended to gain further recognition of teachers and their efforts, to spread knowledge among the entire group of city teachers of the social-science work done in Detroit, to provide a vehicle for announcements, and to provide opportunity for professional expression of the teachers of the city. Stanley E. Dimond is President of the Detroit History Club; Dorothy Perron is Vice-President; Patrick Coyle is Secretary-Treasurer; Robert Wyatt and Edna Clawson are on the Executive Committee. Charles C. Barnes, Supervisor of Social Studies in Detroit, cooperated with the group in the publication of the *Bulletin* for which no editor has yet been selected.

The Detroit teachers are to be both congratulated and praised for the publication of the *Bulletin*. As Superintendent Cody says in its first issue, "Social-Science teachers are showing their professional spirit in the publication of their social-science Bulletin. . . . It is a splendid move in the right direction." Those interested in the *Bulletin* address The Detroit School Science Bulletin, Room 404, American Radiator Building, Detroit, Michigan.

#### STUDY OUTLINES

Longmans, Green and Company have recently published a series of outlines dealing with American government, economics, medieval history, modern history, English history, and English literature. The outlines, ably edited, contain excellent digests of well-organized fields of history. The choice and balance of materials make the books extremely useful as guides for review, and because of the richness of content, the books may serve as valuable references.

*American Government* by S. L. Witman not only contains outlines of political theory, the early colonial governments, the origin and growth of the Constitution, political parties, various branches of national, state, and local governments, but also thirty-six charts which give in pictorial form the various functions of the government. The charts furnish an accurate picture of the government in its various phases and at different stages in American development. The book should prove of great value to students of government.

The two volumes on *Modern History* by S. B. Clough, Columbia University, give a complete digest of modern history from the sixteenth century to the present. The second volume is particularly timely, since it includes material on the post-war developments in regard to the Far East. The books are not accompanied by bibliographies, but they should serve as a guide both for study and for reference.

N. E. B.

#### THE USE OF WORKBOOKS

Mr. Russell A. Sharp, writing on "Use and Abuse of Workbooks" in *The High School Teacher* for January, 1933 (Volume IX, Number 1), has some valuable suggestions for history teachers who are interested in the construction of workbooks for classroom use.

The use of workbooks has had an astounding growth

in the past ten years. "Unavoidably this rapid expansion has been accompanied by some growing pains." There has been much "lifting" of materials and many teachers have relied too completely on the workbook. "Workbooks can certainly be so abused that they lose their value. . . . The teacher who places them in the pupils' hands and trusts to the pupils to learn thereafter without teacher-supervision and teacher-planning is sure to be disappointed. The workbook is the lazy teacher's savior only in so far as it may be degraded to use as busy work. . . . In the hands of an earnest teacher, however, the workbook is a stimulus, a provoker of constructive planning, and a reliever of considerable drudgery."

"The workbook should be of value in planning the pupil's work and should train and guide him in purposeful self-directed activity. At its best it is a guide to study, a guide to thinking, a guide to organization of facts." The workbook, therefore, gives direction to pupil activity but cannot possibly be a substitute for teacher personality.

N. E. B.

#### OKLAHOMA TEACHERS' MEETING

The Oklahoma State Teachers' Meeting was held in Tulsa, February 2-4. The program for the history section was of unusual interest in that a Model League of Nations Assembly, based on the verbatim records of the 1931 session at Geneva, was presented. Delegates came from the surrounding high schools of the state and participated in the speaking parts. Tulsa was fortunate in having Miss Lois Smith to act as president of the Assembly. Miss Smith graduated with highest honors at Radcliffe College in 1932 and was sent by Radcliffe to Geneva in 1931; she was present at this particular session. Rabbi Iola, who traveled in Europe in 1932, spoke on the economic conditions in Europe, and Fred Brooks, state secretary of the League of Nations Association, introduced the Model Assembly.

Another feature of the state meeting was the excellent exhibit of teaching devices in history. The purpose of the exhibit was to show materials which could be used in teaching history, such as new syllabi, new maps of various descriptions now on the market, pamphlets and newspapers with the "social slant," and an excellent display of Indian collections which might assist the teacher of Oklahoma history.

N. E. B.

#### PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION

Teachers of the social studies will find several articles of interest to them in the February, 1933, number of *Progressive Education* (Volume X, Number 2). In "What Children Think about War," Paul M. Lambert reveals facts that are significant for teachers and parents. "The Soviets Survey an Educator" is a critical appraisal, by Johanson I. Zelberfarb, a young educational leader in Soviet Russia, of the social philosophy of George S. Counts as revealed in *The American Road to Culture and Dare the School Build a New Social Order?* Willard W. Beatty analyzes the various ways in which social-studies work is carried on in our schools in his article, "For the Social Education of Children."

In "Xenophobia," Bruno Lasker discusses the rôle of school experiences and textbooks with regard to attitudes toward foreigners. The entire issue merits careful consideration by teachers and parents.

#### GRADATION OF GEOGRAPHIC MATERIALS

The subject of the gradation of materials of instruction in geography is discussed by Zoe A. Thralls in an article entitled, "Gradation of Geographic Materials," in the February number of the *Journal of the National Education Association* (Volume 22, Number 2). According to the author the three criteria that must be taken into consideration in grading geographic materials are: (1) the degree of complexity of the geographic relationships involved; (2) the relative difficulty of the facts and ideas required to understand these relationships, and (3) the functional value of the material. The author gives illustrations of the understandings typical of the various degrees of difficulty involved in geographic relationships.

#### ECONOMIC CITIZENSHIP

The State Education Department of the University of the State of New York, Albany, has recently published (1932) a *Tentative Syllabus in Economic Citizenship*. The outline is designed to meet the need for material of a "social-science character emphasizing individual and group economic responsibility and adapted to the needs of boys and girls in the earlier levels of the secondary-school age." The main topics dealt with are:

- I. Introduction to the business of living.
  - A. Man's economic opportunity gradually changed and improved with progress of civilization.
  - B. We are living now in a new economic age.
  - C. The new industrial democracy.
- II. Preparation for the business of living
  - A. Education
  - B. Finding life work
- III. Management of the business of living
  - A. Succeeding at the life job
  - B. Succeeding in the management of income
- IV. Economic independence at retirement
  - A. Standard of living depends upon earnings.
  - B. How men live when they retire from work.
  - C. What would one's needs be at retirement?
  - D. Why should one look ahead to economic independence?
  - E. Consuming the entire life savings vs. leaving something to others.

Each block of work is accompanied by suggested activities and an excellent bibliography.

N. E. B.

#### WHAT PUPILS THINK OF HISTORY COURSES

The Social Science Association of Southern California is attempting to make a survey of the effectiveness of methods and content in high-school history courses by presenting a questionnaire to students who have majored in history or social science. This questionnaire may be found on page 14 of the *Social Studies Leaflet*

for January, 1933 (Volume IX, Number 1), and will be of interest to teachers who care to check results in history teaching as to whether or not history has some practical application to everyday affairs.

#### BIBLIOGRAPHY OF EDUCATION THESES

The *Office of Education Bulletin* (1932) No. 16 of the United States Department of the Interior is a *Bibliography of Research Studies in Education for 1930-1931*. Sixteen of its pages are devoted to an annotated list of investigations in the teaching of the social sciences: 49 studies classified under "social studies" are listed; 27 are listed under geography; 78 are listed under history; and 24 are listed under civics. Most of the studies listed are unpublished Master's or Doctor's dissertations. The bulletin is for sale at the Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., for fifty cents.

#### PHILOSOPHY OF SOCIAL-STUDIES TEACHING

Harold Rugg, in *Progressive Education* for December, 1932 (Volume IX, Number 8), maintains that the changing cultures in the social order should revolve about two problems: (1) What are the concepts and problems of our changing civilization which should constitute both the needed social program of action and the outline of the educational program? (2) What are the elements of a creative philosophy which shall be appropriate for the new social order?

Mr. Rugg suggests that the new content for the curriculum should grow out of the immediate problems and characteristics of our changing society. He lists, with appropriate comments, twelve basic concepts that "should constitute the guiding skeleton of our new educational program."

1. First and foremost, "the fragile interdependence of this world-mechanism of trade and culture that we have created."

2. This generation should grow up expectant of change in all things—standards of life, morality, and corresponding changes in political, social, and economic government.

3. "The powerful rôle of the great economic concepts of private property, the desire for economic gain, and the doctrine of individual success through competition." Youth may be brought to see that most world conflicts, both individual and political, have come about through a desire for economic gain.

4. Political democracy, in fact every form of government, is an experiment to be changed as new social and economic conditions develop.

5. The dangers that are inherent in collective living. "Nothing short of heroic efforts of mass education can successfully combat the new conditions of urban democracy."

6. Need for planning.

7. Need for more equitable distribution of goods the world round.

8. Need for a central economic government.

9. Physical and social dangers in urban crowding.

10. Fear of standardization. "The dangerous stratification of a society which minimizes or ignores the contribution of the creative mind of every frontier of

thought and feel, and puts into a position of power the exploiter and the aggrandizer, be he financial promoter or practical politician."

11. A knowledge of human conduct.

12. "Running through the entire program from kindergarten to college and through all the adult agencies of education, shall be the attempt to build two great coördinate and controlling attitudes and methods of thought." One attitude is experimental inquiry; the other is that of "appreciative awareness, with which men shall adjust to all the personalized, expressive, non-problem-solving situations."

Summarizing the first great need then of social reconstruction, Mr. Rugg says, "This step amounts to preparing and introducing into the schools of the world a courageous and intelligent description of our new society."

The second great problem in social reconstruction is more difficult to determine; to formulate a philosophy upon which to base the social concepts of a new

curriculum, and here it is that most educators fail. The question becomes, "What kind of a world citizen shall we produce?" Old loyalties are breaking down or disappearing. New forms of conduct are appearing. What attitudes are desirable? The first is the experimental attitude that will enable men to master social and economic relations. The second attitude of appreciative awareness takes into consideration the various elements of the social order. It teaches that labor has a socially useful and creative, educational contribution to the social reconstruction. "Leaders and followers alike, the talented few as well as the mediocre mass, must be equipped with a respect for handcraft, as well as mindcraft, and practiced in appreciation of form with every medium of expression." In the last analysis, the greatest goal of education is to produce craftsmen not for the sake of material perfection but as a means for producing sound personalities in tune with the changing order of society.

N. E. B.

## Book Reviews

*Edited by* PROFESSORS HARRY J. CARMAN and J. BARTLET BREBNER, *Columbia University*

*Ramillies and the Union with Scotland.* By George Macaulay Trevelyan. Longmans, Green and Co., London, 1932. xiv, 468 pp. 21s.

The second volume of Mr. Trevelyan's *England under Queen Anne*, beginning with the immediate aftermath of the victory at Blenheim and carrying through to the middle of the year, 1709, differs but little in character from the first. Blenheim has given way to Ramillies and Oudenarde, and domestic politics have extended their sphere to include Scotland; but if the scene has changed somewhat and a few new actors have appeared, the main features of the background and the dominant characters are those of the first act. Marlborough, Godolphin, and a few others occupy the center of the stage, while at the sides the Whig and Tory supers bicker and strut, and Anne wanders in and out, too important to be disregarded and too incapable to play the rôle assigned to her.

With the publication of this volume historians are better able to judge the quality of its predecessor as well as the author's place in historiography. We have been waiting some time for Mr. Trevelyan to produce his *magnum opus* but it must be admitted however regretfully that this second volume only confirms what one suspected but scarcely dared admit concerning the first—that the brilliant promise of his early volumes died "a-borning." What is it that these two volumes lack? It is not the particular deficiencies—loaded words, excessive nationalism, superficiality, complacency, whiggism—that set this history off as commonplace, for such could be more strongly charged against the underestimated volumes of the author's uncle. Does the trouble not lie in an inadequate point of view? The facts are good so far as they go, their presentation is generally acceptable, but the results

are not what we expected. The focus of the narrative is Marlborough's winning of the War of the Spanish Succession, but that is not enough. It does not matter that such a view might have been regarded as adequate twenty or forty years ago; it is inadequate now. Granted that the war had an outstanding importance, other men than Marlborough, other factors than politics gave it this significance. But Mr. Trevelyan goes serenely along, contentedly enunciating his dogma: "War and politics are the two horses the historian must drive abreast, for they alone can be harnessed to a logical narrative of events." To this it may be answered that if "a logical narrative" leads inescapably to an essential superficiality then let us be illogically diffuse. Such fortunately is not the only alternative.

In particulars no less than in his general historical philosophy he has been guilty of superficial thinking, sired in large part it would seem by the deficiency in point of view, which has led him to attribute events of far-reaching importance to causal antecedents that might well be considered incidental. Of the election of 1705 he writes: "Before midsummer the Grand National Pantomime of the General Election was over, but though it might seem mere clowning to an amused or cynical spectator, the elections had decided the fate of Europe and of Britain." Where perchance were the army contractors, the war financiers, the "dollar a year men," and others who stood to profit by the war? Did they have nothing to say concerning the disposition of foreign policy? Again in treating the evolution of the union with Scotland he declares that if Queen Anne had known of the victory of Blenheim, "she would never have signed the Act of Security [an act by the Scottish parliament providing that when Anne died, the Scottish parliament should choose her successor for



Scotland], and the whole course of Scottish history would have been different." Still further he says of three men executed in Scotland in reprisal for English seizure of a Scottish cargo: "Three men—two Englishmen and one Scot—had died for the nation, for the new nation of Great Britain, which could not have come into existence if their unjust death had been prevented by the hand of power stretched out from England over Scotland."

Provincialism has long been a besetting sin of English historians and Mr. Trevelyan proves no exception. He seems, for example, to be totally incapable of understanding why Holland had no overwhelming urge to fight England's wars. The Dutch were defeatists, they put every obstacle in the path of victory, they wanted peace. How stupid of them! They should, so Mr. Trevelyan seems to imply, have been perfectly willing for their commerce, their industry, and their agriculture to be completely disorganized in order that Britain might become mistress of the seas, the workshop of the world, and a nation of shopkeepers. Provincialism comes out also in the eulogies of the British governmental system, the squirearchy, and the attachment of "the Crown, the Ministry and the Treasury . . . to the Commons House, . . . an altogether admirable arrangement, the basis of sound finance, honest administration and free government." Would Harley, would Godolphin have subscribed to those sentiments?

Finally, since space will not permit further criticism, what justification can be offered for the judgment that the substitution of Austrian for French dominion over

Italy was a "crowning mercy"? Why should Mr. Trevelyan suddenly go ultra-modern in his chapter on the fall of Harley with three pages of irrelevant gossip, including the ageing Lady Castlemaine's amour? Why the jejeune and complacent judgment concerning the Treaty of Utrecht, "a blessing to Britain and to the world"? Last of all, what justification is there for the continued apologies in behalf of Marlborough? Whether the Duke is to be regarded as a scoundrel or an honest man, a military genius or merely a competent soldier blessed with foolish opponents, lies somewhat beyond Mr. Trevelyan's fumbling efforts at whitewash and eulogy, since they illumine the deficiencies quite as often as they delineate the achievements.

Yet it should not be thought that this volume is open to nothing but criticism. Mr. Trevelyan has related the complicated story of the union with Scotland with great skill, and he has tried, in the main successfully, to hold an even course in his judgments concerning both the men who brought the union about and those whose influence was thrown against it. He has carried his readers through the intricate maze of factional strife with as much success as is possible. He sees clearly, in contrast to many historians, that for all the subsequent importance of the Commons, the Lords in the reign of Anne at least held the wheel. His sources comprise an excellent bibliographical guide to the external history of Queen Anne's reign and his footnote comments are often valuable. Nevertheless, the book does not live; it does not stimulate its readers to go into library stacks and start filling in the *lacunae*; there does not



#### OPEN SEASON for KINGS

Beginning with France in 1870, thirteen monarchies have been overthrown. The topmost crown is that of Spain, cast there in 1931. It has been there before and recovered. Watch it.

pithy little drawings that enliven its pages . . . For an enlarged copy of one of the excellent time charts, send for circular #639.

So refreshingly different!

## PAHLOW MAN'S GREAT ADVENTURE

Day after day, letters arrive from teachers congratulating us on the publication of a new high-school history that is so refreshingly *different*—so *new* in its materials and presentation—so *vigorous* and *provocative* in its point of view . . . We show here one of the many

**GINN AND COMPANY**

Boston New York Chicago Atlanta Dallas Columbus San Francisco

shine forth either the olympian wholeness or the shrewd analysis that made Halevy's volumes on the not less complicated early nineteenth century an event in historical writing. In short, Mr. Trevelyan, in baking his historical bread, forgot some important ingredients: he left out the salt, and most of all, the yeast.

CHARLES F. MULLETT

University of Missouri

*The Fall of the Inca Empire, and the Spanish Rule in Peru: 1530-1780.* By P. A. Means. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1932. 351 pp. \$4.50.

The history of pre-Spanish cultures in the Andean region, from documentary and archaeological sources, was the subject matter of Mr. Means' excellent book "Ancient Civilizations of the Andes" (Scribners, 1931). The "Fall of the Inca Empire" is the logical second volume which continues the history up to the Tupac Amaru II rebellion, itself incipient to the final break with Spain. The conclusion of the history up to modern times presents the material for a third book by the same author.

This is a careful consideration of a difficult subject, the conquest and colonial reign in Peru. It is difficult first because of the complexity of the source material, much of it manuscript. Mr. Means' extensive research in the libraries of many countries is continually evidenced. Secondly, it is difficult because every source must be judiciously weighted in respect to its author, his experience and his veracity. Mr. Means' personal acquaintance with the countries and peoples of whom he writes has qualified him to distinguish his materials. Thirdly, the source material as well as the problem is divided into three divisions which must constantly be inter-related by the historian—Spain, Spaniards in America, and Indians.

In his conclusion Mr. Means expresses his regrets that the money-complex had to disrupt the noble, though not perfect, experiment which the Incan absolute monarchy was evolving. Critics have perhaps overstressed this view. Throughout the body of the book the treatment of events and their significance is historical rather than moral. At no time is Mr. Means unaware of the defects of the Incan social and political system which existed before the conquest. He describes the working of the absolute monarchy based on a complete bureaucracy. He does not deny the slaves, the mine workers, the sweat-shop cloth manufacture. He describes the lack of any horizontal organization between officials of the same rank to counter-act the extreme vertical organization from Inca downwards.

As soon as the searchlight of historical research is trained upon the motives and exploits of that courageous band of Pizarro's followers, the glittering armour, although still stalwart, loses much of its polish. Mr. Means minces no words. His archaeological knowledge of the fine stone masonry, the superb textiles, the decorated pottery, has perhaps weighed down his sympathies in favor of the Indian, but with all consideration no one can seriously deny his picture of early Spanish days in Peru. The corruption, cruelty and lust of the conquistadores and their immediate followers,

coupled with the excessive demands and consistent misunderstandings of the Spanish kings, compose a chapter of unpleasant character in Andean history. There are examples of rules and regulations passed in good faith. There are accounts of men who realized the defects of the colonial government and earnestly strove to remedy it. Mr. Means quite fairly presents this minority, but shows, quite justly, how quickly good intentions and good men were consumed in the fire of corruption and lust.

Quite apart from the picture of colonial times, Mr. Means presents a good historical, chronological account of the successive events of the times. If the picture is complex it is but a true reflection of reality. In clarifying the chart of the men, their history and their deeds, Mr. Means has laid the foundation for an understanding of present day Peru. He amplifies this in his chapters discussing specifically the contributions, for better or for worse, made by the Spaniards. The Government and its institutions, the church and its functions, architecture, arts and sciences have all left their mark.

The book should interest a diversified audience. The interest to the Latin-American historian is obvious. The archaeologist finds it a convenient source for ascertaining the historical mention of famous sites (the chapter notes are excellent). The sociologist, economist and political scientist find material in every chapter. The ethnologist observes with interest the combination of Indian and Spanish elements, as well as the Indian cultural resistance which refused to accept many Spanish traits.

Given the facts which Mr. Means so adequately describes one cannot suppose that he believes that the history could have been different. If the Spanish King Charles had made a study of Andean civilizations (as Mr. Means did) before attempting the conquest and then set up his government on the basis of his research findings, all might have been different. But why speculate? Reversing the view to an analysis, however, it is quite evident that Mr. Means has hit the key-note in the weakness of the Andean republics.

One awaits with interest the next book "The Andean Republics in Modern Times" which should combine all the resources of Mr. Means' historical studies.

W. C. BENNETT

American Museum of Natural History  
New York

*The Cost of the War to Russia.* By Stanislas Kohn and Baron A. F. Meyendorff. Yale University Press, New Haven, Connecticut. 1932. 215 pp. \$3.25.

The volume under review is an attempt to express the cost of the war in terms of demographic changes which occurred in European Russia during the war, and in factors leading to the Revolution as a result of the war.

The first part is an able and thorough statistical study prepared by Prof. Kohn of Prague. In view of a certain lack of material at the author's disposal, he warns the reader that some of his calculations are crude and exaggerated. But for all of this, Prof. Kohn's

purely quantitative conclusions admit certain inferences which bear directly upon the post-war events in Russia. In this connection the following figures stand out most significantly: rural Russia supplied 90 per cent of all the mobilized, representing a loss, for the period of war duration at any rate, of 23 per cent of all able-bodied rural males; 45 per cent of all able-bodied males, both urban and rural, were in the army, and "the total losses of the army represent from 7.2 to 8.5 millions, that is, from 45 to 54 per cent of the total number of mobilized men (approximately 15.8 million)."

The huge losses sustained by Russia came not as a result of great victories but from great defeats. While the Old Regime was unsuccessful in securing the former, the author's conclusions indicate that it did succeed in stripping the country of its man-power in the attempt to fight the enemy with the sheer force of numbers rather than with modern military technique and sound economic organization in the rear. From an economic point of view this policy led to an early deterioration of peasant agriculture and ultimately to a general economic dislocation. From a political point of view it not only aggravated the old-time negative attitude of the peasants and workers towards the Old Regime, but brought about the former's decision to vote against the war, not by a show of hands, to be sure, but by a "show of feet," as Lenin put it.

Baron Meyendorff's treatment of the social factors which came to the fore as a result of the war and served as the immediate cause of the downfall of Tzarism is of hardly any significance. His all-too-brief elucidation on such a topic as "War and Agriculture," or "National and Religious Problems" is not compensated by deep insight into the problems, and for his analysis, of which there is a great lack, he largely depends upon quotations from secondary sources.

His treatment of the peasant problem may serve as an illustration of his approach. He is of the opinion, for instance, that "it is . . . not easy to view the outbreak of 1917 as a general peasant uprising" (p. 174) because "the purchasing power of the peasants was increased during the war" (p. 174) and also because "the peasantry had already ceased to be a homogeneous group" (p. 174). But a closer examination of his statements reveals the weakness of his argument. First, his admission that "the area cultivated by the peasants . . . was coming down to the level of their bare requirements" (p. 182) invalidates his claims of a higher purchasing power and the implication that the peasant standard of living had improved. Second, while granting that the Stolypin agrarian policy solved the problem for a limited number of peasants, it cannot be denied that this very policy at the same time vastly increased the difficulties of the majority of the peasantry. And in registering their grievances against the state, the difficulties common to the majority of the peasants knitted them together in one homogeneous group. What those grievances were, and why the peasants joined forces with the workers when the day of reckoning arrived—one will not find in the author's discourse. We do find it, however, admirably stated in a report submitted to the Tzar during the war by a

group of monarchists: "the peasantry will follow the proletariat the very moment the revolutionary leaders point a finger to other man's land." But "other man's land" meant landlord-land. Therefore, in order to avoid so delicate a problem Baron Meyendorff discreetly refrains from discussing it at all. He refuses even to consider the thought that the outspokenly disloyal attitude of the peasants towards the Old Regime during the war had its genesis in centuries-old oppressive governmental policies directed against the peasants. He treats the entire situation as though there had been no trace of an agricultural problem before 1914. And this attempt to "localize" a problem which does not lend itself to so narrow a treatment makes his discussion hypothetical to a point of suspicion.

The same restricted outlook stamps his elucidation on industrial labor. He overestimates the influence of the "extremists" upon the body of industrial labor. In this respect he reflects the opinion of some of the official reports of the "polizei." It is quite true, as Meyendorff maintains, that there were "some political influences eager to involve the industrial workers in a definite pacifist and revolutionary movement," but this does not explain why the Russian workers were "imbued to a surprising degree with socialist ideas." Neither does it indicate why they were so eager to enter into economic and political strikes, nor does it help us to understand why the workers became the leaders in the revolt against the monarchy.

It was hardly the revolutionary movement, as the author infers, that did away with patriotism or im-

## A NEW SERVICE FOR TEACHERS

**N**O LONGER is it necessary for teachers contemplating location in unfamiliar communities to do so blindly, or with only the meager, out-of-date information of encyclopedias and gazeteers. **COMMUNITY RESEARCH**—organized by a teacher—prepares accurate, detailed, readily comprehensible reports on the significant climatic, economic, industrial, and population characteristics of any community—large or small. Useful to any teacher, these reports are of special value to social science teachers and executives.

**KNOW YOUR TOWN.** Even if you are not changing location you will find that our general report contains much information from government reports and other sources, hitherto unknown to you. This is especially useful in making social science courses, definite, live and real.

For an added charge we will endeavor as fully as possible to secure reliable information and opinions on the financial condition of school districts.

General report covering above points—\$1.00  
Prompt service—Write for particulars.

**COMMUNITY RESEARCH—BOX 58**  
(Please state box number)  
ISHPEMING, MICH.



paired the fighting capacity of the army. The opponents of the autocratic regime attended to the last rites, but the real grave-digging was done by the official purveyors of an "indivisible Russia." As an instance of that we may cite the Secretary of War Polivanov's reply to an inquiry on the dangerous situation at the front: "I place my trust in the impenetrable spaces, impassable mud, and the mercy of Saint Nicholas Mirlikisky, Protector of Holy Russia." It was such trusting individuals who undermined the army, imbued the labor movement with a militant spirit, and destroyed the monarchy. But in Baron Meyendorff's consideration of the social forces which led to the Revolution, he manages not to mention the rôle played by this upper stratum of the Russian society. Whatever the author's reasons, this significant omission, and the overemphasis of contributing factors, coupled with a lack of historical perspective, do not clarify, but obscure one of the most important chapters in Russian Social and Economic history.

W. LADEJINSKY

New York City

*China Today: Economic.* By J. B. Condliffe. World Peace Foundation, Boston, 1932. 214 p. \$2.50.

*Business and Politics in the Far East.* By Edith E. Ware. Yale University Press, New Haven, 1932. x, 250 pp. \$3.00.

*Economic Rivalries in China.* By Grover Clark. Yale University Press, New Haven, 1932. 132 pp. \$2.00.

These three well-written books taken together (with the exception of the second part of Edith Ware's study which is devoted to Japan) present as full and realistic a picture of China's present economic status and problems as it is now possible to give on the bases of existing data. The authors have all been in China and have been able to check facts and figures available in existing accounts against actual observations.

J. B. Condliffe's study is the most comprehensive of the three, covering the agricultural situation as well as the industrial, financial and foreign trade aspects of China's economic life. The author has substantially documented his book, frequently referring the reader to recent detailed studies and surveys. It is, therefore, a convenient and reliable handbook for the study of China's contemporary economic problems. The survey opens with a condensed summary of the existing statistics available on Chinese birth and death rates as well as size of population and its density. His conclusion concerning China's population is that whether it be "... less than 400 millions or more than 450 millions ... the fact of overpopulation is too obvious to be disregarded. It is the major source of China's economic weakness and responsible also for much of her political difficulty." (p. 18) He continues in the following chapter to substantiate this statement by presenting figures based on recent studies made by J. Lossing Buck and others of the size of land holdings and the "cruelly low" standard of living among the peasants who comprise fully 80 per cent of the population. He then recounts what the Chinese and their foreign coworkers

are doing to improve this condition through the application of western scientific knowledge to the improvement of the Chinese peasant's time-honored methods; the development of rural credit organizations, of co-operative marketing; as well as the attempts of the government to abolish internal transit dues (likin) and to regulate downward rents and interest rates. The chapter on "The Growth of Towns and Urban Industry" discusses the growth of coastal cities, problems of urban development; the present stage of industrialization and its bases in China's relatively limited natural resources and its costs in the form of social maladjustments, low wages, long hours and intolerable working conditions. The rest of the study is devoted to an equally full and timely discussion of China's public finances, banking, attempts at currency reform and foreign trade.

Edith E. Ware has written two monographs on business and politics in China and Japan from the point of view of international co-operation. For the solution of the complicated and distressing problems of the Far East there is need of the "will-to-coöperate" with the League of Nations playing a dominant rôle in the process. The present Manchurian crisis arose from the failure to adopt this policy and continued failure to do so will inevitably lead to further catastrophes that "... may involve the United States and Europe as well. In the whole matter four primary considerations are involved: the abolition of extraterritoriality, the recognition of Chinese sovereignty, the safeguarding of business relationships, and the guaranteeing to Japan of the opportunities and resources necessary to her economic well-being." (p. 245)

The first part of the book discusses business contractual relationships in China and their bearing upon the abolition of extraterritoriality. Especially interesting are the chapters devoted to a discussion of the efforts of the Chinese to adopt Western legal codes and practices and the inability of the courts to apply these codes which are so much at variance with Chinese customs, concepts of the obligation of contract, and of justice. Other interesting aspects discussed are the westernizing of Chinese business practices, successful business practices employed by foreigners in China, the international settlement at Shanghai and the need of machinery for co-operation. The second part of the book is devoted to a general discussion of Japan's modernization, of its assets for leadership in programs for international understanding and co-operation, of recent policies and parliamentary developments, the national psychology of the younger generation and their potential influence in the formulation of national policies and the background and history of the Manchurian crisis to January, 1932.

Grover Clark has written a clear succinct account of the rivalries of foreigners and Chinese in the economic development of China. He has marshalled the available statistics in a masterly fashion and though the book fairly bristles with these he has succeeded in making it readable. He has given us a thoroughly reliable account of the part played by foreigners as well as Chinese in the development of China's modern railway, shipping, industrial and banking facilities. The

extent and nature of foreign investments is clearly set forth. He emphasizes the one important change which has occurred in recent years which is "... the increasingly coherent desire to have China for the Chinese." That change in the economic field is marked by "... the adoption of a protective tariff for Chinese industry, the development of Chinese banks and Chinese firms which deal directly with foreign countries instead of through foreign agents in China ..." accompanied by the demand for the abolition of extraterritoriality and the restitution of foreign concessions and settlements. All these are manifestations of a new national self-consciousness. "The foreign Powers, in the main, have come to recognize that conditions in China have changed fundamentally, and that foreign activity in and with China in the future must rest on the assumption that China in effective fact as well as in diplomatic formality does belong to the Chinese people." (p. 125) Japan alone among the foreign nations possess interests in China of really vital importance to her national welfare and there is, therefore, "... no security for (her) except in the friendship of the Chinese people ... (and) that friendship is not to be won with bayonets nor maintained with machine guns." (p. 126)

Those who wish to gain a clearer understanding of contemporary political and international developments in the Far East should not fail to read these three fundamental economic studies.

CYRUS H. PEAKE

Columbia University

*The Messiah of Ismir, Sabbatai Zevi.* By Joseph Kas-tein, Translated by Huntley Paterson, Viking Press, New York, 1931. 346 pp. \$3.50.

In the seventeenth century the Jews, scattered far and wide over Europe and the Near East, were a people without home or security. Clinging desperately to their faith, they turned for additional satisfaction to their history, which had oftentimes brought them comfort in the promise of salvation through a Messiah. Such a redeemer was rendered immediately desirable by frequent massacres of Jews during the early years of the century, and into this atmosphere of anticipatory tension Sabbatai Zevi, the subject of this book was born.

The son of a poor poulterer in Ismir (Smyrna), Sabbatai became a scholar, and evidenced his ability by mastering, before the age of fifteen, the whole of Talmudic and Rabbinic literature. His chief interest, however, was the Kabala, with its Messianic theme, and he soon came to believe that he was the Saviour. Opposed by the intellectual leaders of Judaism, nevertheless, egotistical, opportunistic charlatan that he was, Sabbatai persevered in his efforts to achieve recognition as the predestined leader of his people; and a carefully planned campaign of propaganda, reinforced by forged documents, brought him pilgrims from all quarters. Visions, travels, and several very unusual marriages added colour to a career which terminated rather prosaically with discomfiture at the hands of opponents, capture by the Turks, and voluntary conversion to Mohammedanism.

The story is more than the biography of one of the last and most fraudulent claimants to Messianic prestige. It is an interesting attempt to reveal the history of the Jewish people in the seventeenth century, to explain their hopes, and to demonstrate their susceptibilities.

JOHN HALL STEWART

Western Reserve University

*The States of Europe, 1815-1871.* By R. B. Mowat. Longmans, Green and Company, New York, 1932. 408 pp.

Professor Mowat of the University of Bristol has chosen as the theme for his latest volume one that present day historians have most neglected. In the haste to explain the evolution of pre-war diplomacy there has been little effort made to bring the events between the Congress of Vienna and the establishment of the Third Republic into their proper perspective. To most students this period is something of an interlude, coming as a "breathing space" after the last detonations of one great war and the first rumblings of the next. It is, therefore, a well chosen subject to which the author directs himself.

In the matter of organization there is little selection since the topic falls into rather distinct periods, terminating either in revolution or unification of some particular country or countries. It is primarily of the political developments which the author treats—liberalism, parliamentarism, and nationalism, to use the words in his introduction. With so extended a range of topics one would expect to find something of the course of English parliamentary development, Greek nationalism, or Turkish disintegration, but all of these are outside the work. With these fringes of Europe clipped from the picture, there remain France, Prussia, and Austria, whose course of events occupy four of the five sections into which the book is divided. A concluding part is a potpourri of incidentals which parallel the fifty-five years covered in the earlier pages. Hence, one finds here the history of the political unification of Italy and of the Catholic Church, a puny chapter on the Socialist movement, and less than the proverbial thumbnail sketch of Russia.

The author relies largely upon unpublished dispatches from the British Foreign Office for his source material. And in the mind of the reviewer, while it is a distinct contribution to the field of historical research, it is also a disadvantage, for it places far too much credence upon the reports of British diplomatic officers and gives a decidedly English slant to the work. Beyond these dispatches Professor Mowat depends upon standard works, notably Stern's *Geschichte Europas* and Louis Blanc's *Histoire de Dix Ans. Memoirs*, generally considered to add a dash of spice to what otherwise would be heavy reading, may be used too frequently, as the book under review illustrates, and so defeat their purpose. Why the Duke of Brunswick merits almost a page of description (p. 87)—and that of a petty sort—and Ferdinand Lassalle is omitted is difficult to explain. The year 1817 could hardly be the third centenary of the burning of the bull of Leo X by Martin Luther (p. 56); that event occurred in De-

cember of 1520. Nor did the Reform Bill of 1832 add 500,000 to the electorate of England (p. 104).

A fondness for details and a failure to grasp, or at least to present clearly, the factors of a non-political character give the book a narrowness of view that considerably lessens its value as a history of this period. Future historians, seeking to present an introduction to the years after 1870, may use Professor Mowat's book as a "what-not-to-do" guide and perhaps offer a better proportioned narrative of this "long and fertile central period of the nineteenth century."

ALBERT C. F. WESTPHAL

College of the City of New York

*France and the Colonial Question, A Study of Contemporary French Opinion, 1763-1801.* By Carl Ludwig Lokke, Ph.D., Lecturer in History, Columbia University. New York, Columbia University Press, 1932. 254 pp., \$3.75.

The latter half of the eighteenth century was a critical period in the history of European colonization, for the Enlightenment, coupled with the American Revolution, caused much "searching of the heart" about the old colonial system. Dr. Lokke's work is an excellent analysis of French views regarding colonies in the years from the Peace of Paris to the preliminaries of the Peace of Amiens. The distinctive feature of the book lies in the fact that it is a history of opinion in France rather than an account of the colonies or a treatise on colonial policy.

The volume naturally falls into two parts, the period of the *ancien régime* and that of the French Revolution. After the Peace of Paris, French overseas interests centered primarily in the West Indies, and the foundations of the colonial system were trade monopoly and negro slavery. Both were severely criticized by leading writers of the day. Dr. Lokke presents a clear summary of the views of theorists, travelers, ministers, and colonial officials on these important questions, reviewing the opinions of Rousseau, Mably, Montesquieu, Voltaire, Raynal, Pierre Poivre, Bernardin de St. Pierre, Turgot, Necker, Vergennes, Dubuc, and Malouet. Before the Revolution the government opened certain ports in the West Indies to foreign trade and modified the regulations for the handling of slaves. "By 1789, the colonial question had become part and parcel of the general reform movement." (p. 112)

The prosperity which the colonies had enjoyed in the preceding decades was destroyed by the Revolution. Servile insurrections and the emancipation act of 1794 reduced the colonial interest to its lowest ebb. "No period of the Revolution shows so much apathy in regard to the West Indies as the years 1795 to 1797. The country was simply discouraged with the overseas problem." (p. 160) But there now began an interest in colonies nearer home.

The author devotes a large part of his final chapter to Napoleon's famous adventure in Egypt. Even before the Revolution there had been some thought of turning to the Nile as a theatre for colonization. Here was a country where all the necessary tropical commodities could be produced by the free labor so dear to the *philosophes*. Unfortunately the territory belonged to

Turkey, an ancient ally of France, but this did not bother Talleyrand, the Directory, and Napoleon. For this portion of his study Dr. Lokke has had access to papers in the *Archives des Affaires Étrangères* and in the *Archives Nationales*, and the result is the best chapter in the book. It seems to the reviewer, however, that the treatment of Louisiana is too brief, in view of the interest which it aroused from 1798 to 1801.

The volume is equipped with a splendid bibliography and a good index. The style is pleasing, and the details of scholarship are very commendable. A few mistakes in French have been noted.

E. WILSON LYON

Colgate University

*The Pioneer Fringe.* By Isaiah Bowman. New York, American Geographical Society, 1931. xi, 361 pp.

*Pioneer Settlement.* Coöperative studies edited by W. L. G. Joerg. The same, 1932. vii, 473 pp.

These two volumes, which are *Special Publications*, numbers 13 and 14 of the American Geographical Society, represent a kind of contribution to knowledge and thought which such an organization can and ought to make. Most of us are aware, in a vague way, that about 1913 there was a rather violent contraction of the very vigorous occupation of new arable lands (chiefly for wheat farming) all over the world, but that the war of 1914-1918 by shutting out Russia from the world markets set the movement going again. It seems to have suffered a check generally about 1920 and 1921, but to have continued with only slightly diminished momentum until the re-entry of agricultural Russia in 1928 and 1929 and the present terrific dislocation of economic enterprise. There was no convenient way of discovering how far such generalizations were supported or contradicted by particular regions. The makers of policy in particular regions had only the slightest guidance from general conditions and, except in regions where political boundaries were negligible from the standpoint of comparative methods of production, there was little pooling of experience and invention.

*Pioneer Settlement* contains twenty-seven essays by specialists on conditions in seventeen or eighteen parts of the world where agricultural pioneering is going on. They are pretty rigidly descriptive, and very generously illustrated by maps and charts. Some of them are noncommittal and a few are sketchy, but the sum total impresses the reader as being as good a collection of such studies as could be made. Not many persons are likely to have a basis for critical judgment of many of the areas considered. A goodly number are unlikely to have been aware that pioneering was going on in Patagonia, the Limpopo valley, Algeria and Mongolia. Yet the Society has been able to find men concerned with these and the other regions, who report on them with that odd mixture of authoritative information and skepticism about future action which seems to be the birthright of agricultural experts in or out of governmental service. There is little or no propaganda in this volume. One certainly would have expected it in studies of the same sort made before 1919. The astringent cau-



tion bred by agriculture's problems since 1920 has helped in making a good book.

One's first impression is of the common factors affecting pioneer settlement in various parts of the world—amount and reliability of rainfall, evaporation, irrigability, railways and other transportation, soil and profitable subsidiary enterprise. Then special considerations begin to loom larger until one is ready to admit that each area represents a special problem because of its combination of factors. How can one resolve in a general picture of pioneer settlement pests like lions, rabbits and tsetse flies; human factors like native labor and white degeneration; diseases like malaria and nerve strain from the combination of altitude and nearness to the equator; and oddities like lamaism, ancestor-worship, the decrease in the flow of artesian wells, and an appetite for moving-pictures and radios?

In *The Pioneer Fringe*, Dr. Bowman, who put forward the idea of these studies in 1926, essays a kind of synthesis. He has a great gift for illuminating discourse, happy analogy and persuasive essays at generalization. He seeks a science of settlement. Fortunately he has no axe to grind in the way of pet comprehensive theories. He sees that the pioneer fringes are experimental and that they should involve a search for the best combination of natural resources, kind of crop, method of exploitation and type of labor rather than a single trial and error kind of simple enterprise. Moreover he is remarkably hospitable to the sociological implications of the special situations. His basic motive is a profound distaste for waste, whether human or of natural resources. The result is a very humane book, made more intimate than its companion by an abundance of good photographs.

One can congratulate the Social Science Research Council, the National Research Council and the American Geographical Society which made these books possible, without admitting that a "science of settlement" has emerged except in the barest outline, if at all. In its place, explicit information has been provided lavishly and carefully, and the honesty of Dr. Bowman and his collaborators has usually made their inductive generalizations highly tentative. Luck is admitted. The consecutive or non-consecutive occurrence of annual drought within a long-term average, the accidents of hail and late or early frosts, even earthquakes, have to be drawn in. It is as if the authors admitted that the farmer gambles with Nature anyway and that the pioneer farmer risks much heavier odds. His one advantage is cheapness of land and if he hits upon a fairly consistent combination in his exploitation, all other things will be gathered unto him—railways, roads, motor-cars and mail-order catalogues. But science? Hardly, except insofar as the best obtainable information is a wise man's preliminary.

B.

*Rockefeller—Giant, Dwarf, Symbol.* By William H. Allen. Institute for Public Service, New York, 1930. xviii, 619 pp.

As a matter of example, it is oftentimes well that we do not bury an evil until we have first exposed it. A thorough autopsy of *Rockefeller—Giant, Dwarf, Symbol*

reveals a chaotic organization, an excrescence of verbiage, a mass of print and pulp, but scarcely a scintilla of history. Despite spirited defense by the author, it has no reason for existence.

Mr. Allen finds Mr. Rockefeller is a creature of extremes. Extremely good, extremely bad—though tending in the latter direction. Ambitious, persistent, foresighted, critical, assiduous, polite, neat, a student of people and of himself—these were John D.'s "lightning rods for success." White accepts the "gospel of success"; the hardships imposed upon millions who have sweated to create the "champion" fortune seem not to bother him, except as he can directly trace them to acts of dishonesty. This author does not cry out because the owner and monopolizer of wealth fattened on the labor of his minions in the style of all capitalists. What does outrage his super-moral sense is John's failure to abide by the rules of the game as Allen sees them. Rebates, manufactured publicity, half-truths—these are to be condemned; but worst crime of all, Rockefeller neglected the maintenance of his old homesteads; This man Rockefeller is depicted as a giant in shrewdness, in luck and in power but a dwarf in intelligence and in the capacity to turn his fortune to the welfare of humanity.

Biographical facts are tucked away in corners—and these corners are chronologically confused and practically obliterated by padding. Emerging from the conglomerate potpourri of quasi-biblical ethics, rhetoric, and anathema, and shaking off the slovenly grammar, one discovers that this volume is a series of critical essays. "Boyhood influences," "champion fortune builder," "personality," "champion money giver," "champion symbol"—so run the chapter heads. No act of Rockefeller but is appraised to determine its morality and its influence on world opinion. Mr. Allen has set himself upon the judgment seat to decide the lot of the champion distributor of dimes. Everywhere he has sought aid toward the construction of his final estimate. All documents have been unearthed, all persons interviewed, all clues traced. This was excellent research, to be sure, but Mr. Allen forgot that the black and brown binding was to enclose a book, not a hodge-podge of notes. Nowhere is there visible the synthesis we have come to expect of the modern historian.

Several points rise out of the general miasma often enough to be considered conclusions. First, John D. and his henchmen have consciously devoted the last decades to the creation of "Rockefeller, the champion symbol." Books, news items, educational foundations, even legal battles have all been utilized in the great campaign to make the name Rockefeller synonymous with wealth and philanthropy. Secondly, this philanthropy has been ill-managed, directed chiefly into channels where publicity would be most intensive, and hampered by strings of control. The very hugeness of the \$400,000,000 foundations blinds endowed researchers when they approach fields which Standard Oil deems untouchable, while the ballyhoo attendant upon many of the unimportant but expensive projects persuades the unanalytic observer to the belief that the Rockefeller millions return to society. Mr. Allen, and this reviewer, see no great benefit to mankind in the endowment of educa-

tional institutions which have as their purpose the training of little emulators of the "great man." And we might also question—as Mr. Allen does not—whether it is really philanthropic to spend millions finding cures for tropical diseases while entirely neglecting the alleviation of widespread evils in the industrial enterprises which furnish the income for the foundations. It is amazing to consider the scope of the improvements which could be effected by \$400,000,000 efficiently and wisely spent. The Rockefeller fortune has not touched the field of government research; the elimination of war is not one of its pets. Yet a few millions devoted to anti-war publicity (instead of the inflation of John D.) could very easily draw the fangs of militarism.

For the correction of inefficient giving Mr. Allen suggests an interstate gifts commission. He has not yet learned that regulating bodies become mere tools in the hands of those they are supposed to regulate. His remedy is as innocuous as his attack is annoying. Having never once sounded the depths in the explanation of the rise and menace of a Rockefeller, the logical result of his superficial attack is to arouse sympathy for the maligned victim. This must have been the re-action of Ivy Lee, director of Rockefeller publicity, who held the manuscript for nine months and thereafter allowed its printing.

All of which proves that a bad case of nettles or a cast in the eye may on occasion be fatal. To the morgue without further ado!

AUGUST B. GOLD

New York City

*The Company of Scotland.* By George Pratt Insh. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1932. 343 pp. \$4.00.

In this volume Dr. Insh has written what may well be regarded as the definitive history of the "Company of Scotland trading to Africa and the Indies," from its tentative beginnings in 1693 to its dissolution in 1707. While in a measure a sequel to the author's earlier *Scottish Colonial Schemes*, this volume stands at once as the history of the Company and as a very informing contribution to the economic history of Scotland during the period it covers. The story which Dr. Insh has disentangled from the "cryptic" records of the Company is not one of glorious failure capping a meteoric excursion into empire and trade. Rather, it is the narrative of a dreary failure marking the "culmination of forces that had been long at work." Among these forces were especially the desire to see a Scottish colony and to find an outlet for the products of the growing Scottish woollen industry. Inspiration for the foundation of the Company came not only from Scotland, however, but also from London where merchants, many of them Scotsmen, sought to break the monopoly of the East India Company in the Eastern trade by securing a base in Scotland. The Company was to be a grand project, which, although its headquarters were to be in London primarily and Edinburgh secondarily, would "engage some of the best heads and purses for Trade in Europe."

From the first the Scottish Company was faced with overwhelming difficulties. Scarcely had it been insti-

tuted by an act of the Scots Parliament than the East India Company began to organize English public opinion against the new economic threat, painting a "pathetic picture of England invaded by a host of Scottish pedlars." In the face of a storm which promised penalties to any English subscribers, the London investors, with a few exceptions, left the Company which now betook itself to Scotland. English opposition, however, did not cease, for when the Company attempted to make headway on the continent, it was checkmated constantly by English influence. The causes of this opposition were resentment against a competitor, and governmental fear lest Scottish projects should upset English foreign policy.

Nevertheless, the Company's failure was not a little due to its own constitution. The presence of that mixture of genius and charlatanism, William Paterson, constituted a handicap scarcely offset by his inspiration. Limited funds became a painfully apparent deficiency when colonial projects got under way. Finally, the amazing ignorance of the Company directors with regard to the practical details of commerce, colonization and international affairs was an obstacle that neither general enthusiasm nor individual courage and ingenuity could surmount. The failure at Darien was a contingency hardly to be avoided.

There was, however, another side to the history of the Company of Scotland. The story of Darien has been told before but it has frequently been forgotten that, as the title reminds us, this was also a Company "trading to Africa and the Indies." The expeditions to the East, although they did equal the failure at Darien, contributed not a little to the Company's dissolution. Only one expedition can be said to have been profitable; the others were either downright losses or neutral in their commercial effects. The same factors militated against the Scots here as in the West, and the end while less tragic was little less disastrous so far as the future of the Company was concerned.

It is not likely that this story will need to be told again. Dr. Insh has been both complete and non-insular. He has set forth the details of the Company's history, and he has placed those details against the background of international policy. Furthermore, he has added to our understanding of at least one distinctive human being, namely, William Paterson, "the founder of the Bank of England and the projector of the Darien scheme," who "influenced both the history of his own day and of subsequent ages more than did King William or King Louis." Inasmuch as failure is no valid index of historical importance, Dr. Insh is to be congratulated for this valuable study.

CHARLES F. MULLETT

University of Missouri

## Book Notes

Mr. L. F. Salzman, the author of some valuable little books on medieval English life and industry, has written *A Survey of English History* (Robert McBride Co., New York, 1932. 267 pp.), in which he attempts to provide the essential facts of English evolution in 240

pages. He feels that most English students do not get a grip of the basic facts of their country's story" and that they do not understand *why* things happened. His book tries to remedy the situation. The author's judgment of "basic facts" is most curious. Pages and pages out of the small total are devoted to chronicles of petty skirmishes, royal marriages, and inconsequential intrigue. Substantially no space is given to the development of institutions, of social and economic life, or of culture, which after all have a more evolutionary character than the "facts" which Mr. Salzman has chosen. In his judgments on political affairs he is generally abreast of the new viewpoints, but when he turns to cultural matters he gives no evidence of being aware of the recent "revisions." Social and economic topics are almost entirely neglected. There is no bibliographical apparatus of any kind. Two inadequate maps and a dozen illustrations are included.

The Columbia University Press has just issued for free distribution *Historiography of America, 1600-1800*, by Richard B. Morris of New York University. It is a small pamphlet containing an essay on early American history and a working bibliography. While its basic purpose is to draw attention to the publications of the Columbia University Press it also includes as many important works of other publishers as were necessary for a complete picture.

*The Comte de Vergennes. European Phase of his American Diplomacy (1774-1780)*. By J. J. Meng, Catholic University of America, Washington, 1932. 129 pp. This doctoral dissertation begins with the assumption that Vergennes was the genius back of French assistance to the American colonies, and endeavours to present, especially for the English-reading public, the European phase of his diplomacy in that connection. The author considers his problem in three chapters, "The Comte de Vergennes: Diplomat and Foreign Minister," "Franco-Spanish Coöperation," and "The Neutral League: English Isolation," which are as interesting as the topic will permit. Desirably orthodox in its machinery, the book includes an extensive, well-organized bibliography, and gives the impression that the writer knows his field and understands historical research.

Mr. Meng fails, however, to exhibit that discrimination without which knowledge and the classification and annotation of the materials of history are comparatively valueless. He crowds his pages to repletion with the most obvious diplomatic negotiations of the period, regardless of the fact that most of his readers will be thoroughly conversant with those details. Furthermore, he fails to complete his theme, and his conclusion leaves the reader with the feeling that another graduate student has worn out under the strain, and has consequently produced a "thesis" which is not indicative of his real capacity as a scholar. JOHN HALL STEWART

Students of English legal and constitutional history will welcome Professor George E. Woodbine's edition of Glanvill's *De Legibus et Consuetudinibus Regni An-*

*gliae* (Yale University Press, New Haven, 1932, ix, 306 pp. \$4.50) which will in all probability take rank as the definitive edition. Mr. Woodbine's competence for the task here undertaken has already been attested through his edition of Bracton and his publication of lesser medieval law tracts. Glanvill, or whoever wrote the treatise accredited to him, was one of the great figures of medieval English law, and Mr. Woodbine supplies a need long felt for a complete and authentic edition. In doing so he has examined some twenty-seven manuscripts, collating all of those which had any textual validity. Along with the text Mr. Woodbine has contributed most exhaustive explanatory notes touching historical, legal, and linguistic matters. These notes make up in part for the lack of an introduction dealing with those questions, although the editor is careful to say that the notes are not meant to be a commentary on Glanvill. The formal introduction deals only with the textual problems and, with due respect to Mr. Woodbine's plea that any real commentary would require too much space, it is more than a little unfortunate that he did not think it feasible to give lesser students the benefit of his own extensive learning in some sort of introductory essay. Yet the notes which are nearly as long as the text itself do provide a great deal of aid. There is also an excellent index.

C.F.M.

#### EDITOR'S NOTE

An unfortunate mistake in our issue for March attributed the article entitled "The United States and the World Court" to Miss Esther Everett Lake; the author's name is Miss Esther Everett Lape.

### Books on History and Politics Published in the United States from January 21 to February 18, 1933

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, Ph.D.

#### AMERICAN HISTORY

- Bates, Albert C. The charter of Connecticut; a study. Hartford, Conn.: Conn. Hist. Soc.; 72 pp.; \$2.00.
- Brown, Lawrence G. Immigration, cultural conflicts, and social adjustments. N.Y.: Longmans; 431 pp.; \$3.00.
- Evans, John H. The story of Utah. N.Y.: Macmillan; 459 pp.; \$1.48.
- Hoadley, Charles J., compiler. Hoadley memorial; early letters and documents relating to Connecticut, 1643-1709. Hartford, Conn.: Conn. Hist. Soc.; 225 pp.; \$3.00.
- Journal of the American Irish Historical Society, 1932. N.Y.: Am. Irish Hist. Soc., 132 E. 16th St.; 279 pp.; \$3.00.
- Ross, Malcolm H. Machine age in the hills. N.Y.: Macmillan; 258 pp.; \$2.00.
- Rowe, Nellie M. Discovering North Carolina. [history]. Chapel Hill, N.C.: Univ. of N.C. Press; 372 p.; \$1.00.
- Seldes, Gilbert V. The years of the locust, (America,



- 1929-1932). Boston: Little, Brown; 355 pp.; \$3.00.
- Stewart, Frank H., compiler. Indians of Southern New Jersey. Woodbury, N.J.: Gloucester Co. Hist. Soc.; 94 pp.; \$3.00.
- Stewart, Frank H., compiler. Salem Count [New Jersey] in the Revolution. Woodbury, N.J.: Gloucester Co. Hist. Soc.; 102 pp.; \$3.00.
- Turner, Frederick J. The significance of sections in American history. N.Y.: Holt; 356 pp.; \$3.00.
- Wadsworth, Samuel. Historical notes with keyed map of Keene and Roxbury, Cheshire County, New Hampshire. Keene, N.H.: Robt. P. Hayward, P.O. Box 503; 88 pp.; \$2.50.
- Wilkerson, Marcus M. Public opinion and the Spanish-American War. Baton Rouge, La.: La. State Univ. Press; 141 pp. (5 p. bibl.); \$1.50.
- Zierdt, William H. Narrative history of the 109th Field Artillery, Pennsylvania Nat'l Guard, 1775-1930. Wilkes-Barre, Pa.: Wyoming Hist. and Geol. Soc.; 320 pp.; \$2.50.
- ANCIENT HISTORY
- Johnson, Edgar N. The secular activities of the German episcopate, 919-1024 A.D. Lincoln, Neb.: Uni. of Neb. Lib.; 278 pp.; 75c.
- McGiffert, Arthur C. A history of Christian thought, Vol. 2. The West, from Tertullian to Erasmus. N.Y.: Scribner; 432 pp. (15 p. bibl.); \$3.00.
- Mendelsohn, Isaac. Legal aspects of slavery in Babylonia, Assyria, and Palestine; a comparative study, (3000-500 B.C.). N.Y.: G. L. van Roosbroeck; 72 pp. (3 p. bibl.); \$1.00.
- ENGLISH HISTORY
- Barzun, Jacques M. Visual outline of English history. N.Y.: Longmans; 62 pp.; 75c.
- Petrie, Charles A. The Stuart Pretenders; a history of the Jacobite movement, 1688-1807. Boston: Houghton Mifflin; 315 pp. (2 p. bibl.); \$3.50.
- Stephenson, Carl. Borough and town; a study of urban origins in England. Cambridge, Mass.: Medieval Acad. of America; 252 pp.; \$4.75.
- EUROPEAN HISTORY
- Clough, Shepard B. Visual outline of modern history; pts. 1 and 2. N.Y.: Longmans; 70, 96 pp.; 75c each.
- Cornéjo, Mariano H. The balance of the continents; [history]. N.Y.: Oxford; 229 pp.; \$2.25.
- Lobanov-Rostovsky, Prince A. Russia and Asia. N.Y.: Macmillan; 342 pp. (4 p. bibl.); \$2.50.
- Trotsky, Leon. The history of the Russian Revolution; Vols. 2 and 3. N.Y.: Simon and Schuster; 386, 474 pp.; \$3.50 each.
- THE WORLD WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION
- Bandholtz, Maj. Gen. Harry H. An undiplomatic diary [Diary of American member of the Interallied Military Mission to Hungary, 1919-1920]. N.Y.: Columbia Univ. Press; 425 pp.; \$3.50.
- Beer, Max. The League on trial. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin; 415 pp.; \$4.00.
- Swinton, Maj. Gen. Sir Ernest D. Eye-witness; being personal reminiscences of certain phases of the Great War. N.Y.: Garden City; Doubleday; 345 pp.; \$3.00.
- MEDIEVAL HISTORY
- Hoffman, Ross J. S. Visual outline of medieval history. N.Y.: Longmans; 152 pp.; 75c.
- MISCELLANEOUS
- Flory, John S. Flashlights from history; a brief study in social development. Elgin, Ill.: Brethren Pub. House; 191 pp.; \$1.50.
- Pollard, Robert T. China's foreign relations, 1917-1931. N.Y.: Macmillan; 426 pp.; \$3.50.
- BIOGRAPHY
- Adams, James T. Henry Adams. N.Y.: Boni; 246 pp. (16 bibl.); \$2.50.
- Armstrong, Harold C. Gray Wolf; Mustapha Kemal; an intimate study of a dictator. N.Y.: Minton Balch; 309 pp. (2 p. bibl.); \$3.00.
- Barton, William E. President Lincoln; 2 vols. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill; 772 pp. (8 p. bibl.); \$7.50.
- Clark, Leon P. Lincoln, a psycho-biography. N.Y.: Scribner; 584 pp. (3 p. bibl.); \$3.50.
- Chambrun, Clara Longworth, Countesse de. The making of Nicholas Longworth. N.Y.: Long & Smith; 322 pp.; \$3.00.
- Roselli, Bruno. Vigo, a forgotten builder of the American Republic. Boston: Stratford; 280 pp.; \$2.00.
- Welles, Roger. The Revolutionary War letters of Captain Roger Welles of Wethersfield and Newington, Connecticut. Hartford, Conn.: Conn. Hist. Society; 40 pp.; \$2.00.
- Costigan, Giovanni. Sir Robert Wilson; a soldier of fortune in the Napoleonic Wars. Madison, Wis.: Univ. of Wis.; 277 pp. (11 p. bibl.); \$2.00.
- GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS
- Andrews, Columbus. Administrative county government in South Carolina. Chapel Hill, N.C.: Univ. of N.C. Press; 254 pp. (7 p. bibl.); \$2.50.
- Dunn, Frederick S. The diplomatic protection of Americans in Mexico. N.Y.: Columbia Univ. Press; 446 pp.; \$5.00.
- Griffith, Ernest S. Current municipal problems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin; 293 pp.; \$2.00.
- Merriam, Charles E., and others. The government of the metropolitan region of Chicago. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press; 215 pp.; \$2.00.
- Middleton, W. L. The French political system. N.Y.: Dutton; 296 pp.; \$3.00.
- Mott, George F., Jr. "San Diego—politically speaking." San Diego, Calif.: Frye & Smith, 850 N. 3d St.; 250 pp.; (10 p. bibl.); \$3.50.
- Pitamic, Leonidas. A treatise on the state. Balto.: J. H. Furst Co.; 311 pp. (2 p. bibl.); \$2.00.
- Schlesinger, Arthur M. The rise of the city, 1878-1898. N.Y.: Macmillan; 510 pp. (37 p. bibl.); \$4.00.
- Sontag, Raymond J. European diplomatic history, 1871-1932. N.Y.: Century; 436 pp. (5 p. bibl.); \$3.50.

## WORK-BOOK AND STUDY OUTLINE for PROBLEMS OF AMERICAN DEMOCRACY

By **RAYMOND R. AMMARELL**

*New edition, revised and much enlarged*

The third edition gives up-to-date references to all recent textbooks; the outlines have been revised and expanded; and, most valuable of all, sets of comprehensive test questions have been added to each topic. The new edition contains one-fifth more pages than the old one.

The Workbook contains outlines of seventeen major problems of American life; references to textbooks and to other readings for special projects; statistical tables and cross-ruled paper for making graphs; spaces for notes; outline maps where needed; and test questions for the seventeen topics.

*Price: 55 cents a copy*

*Special price to schools 44 cents a copy, carriage extra.*

### McKINLEY PUBLISHING COMPANY

1021 FILBERT STREET

PHILADELPHIA

### Historical Fiction

and other reading references

for

**JUNIOR AND SENIOR  
HIGH SCHOOLS**

By **HANNAH LOGASA**  
*of the University of Chicago High School*

**N**O teacher can afford to be without this popular guide. Besides listing popular fiction covering all periods of history, this edition contains reading references to biographies, to special works suitable for high school pupils, and to source books.

*Price*  
**\$1.00 per Copy. Carriage extra**

### Handbooks of Citizenship

**Topical Supplements to Textbooks of  
American History and Government**

By **RAYNER W. KELSEY, Ph.D.**  
*Professor of American History in Haverford College*

#### LIST OF HANDBOOKS

- No. 1. **PROHIBITION (1929)**
- No. 2. **FARM RELIEF (third edition, 1930)**
- No. 3. **THE TARIFF (third edition, 1930)**
- No. 4. **INTERNATIONALISM (1930)**
- No. 5. **POLITICAL PARTIES (1930)**

*(Note: A sample copy, which fairly illustrates all of the series, will be sent to anyone contemplating the use of the Handbooks in classes or discussion groups. Specify which number is desired.)*

#### PRICES

Single copies, 20 cents, prepaid; 10 or more  
copies, any assortment, 15 cents  
each, not prepaid.

### McKINLEY PUBLISHING CO.

1021 Filbert St., Philadelphia

- Trotter, Reginald G. *The British Empire—Commonwealth; a study in political evolution.* N.Y.: Holt; 139 pp. (5 p. bibl.); \$1.00.
- Williams, John F. and Lauterpacht, Hersch, editors. *Annual digest of public international law cases, 1919-1922.* N.Y.: Longmans, 565 pp.; \$12.50.
- Witman, Shepherd L. *Visual outline of American Government.* N.Y.: Longmans; 105 pp.; \$1.00.

## Historical Articles in Current Periodicals

COMPILED BY LEO F. STOCK

GENERAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

- History Objective and Subjective. A. S. Turberville (*History*, January).
- Some Recent Textbooks. A. P. Scott (*Journal of Modern History*, March).
- Debunkery and Biography. C. M. Fuess (*Atlantic Monthly*, March).
- Dr. Hermann Schneider's Philosophy of History. J. L. Myres (*History*, January).
- Farmers' Calendars from Tusser to Arthur Young. G. E. Fussell (*Economic History*, January).
- How the Deputies Were Paid in 1789-91. C. L. Benson (*Journal of Modern History*, March).
- Talleyrand, the Prince of Diplomats. Sir John Marriott (*Cornhill Magazine*, February).
- The Secret Franco-Russian Treaty of 3 March 1859. B. H. Sumner (*English Historical Review*, January).
- The Dunkirk Money, 1662. C. L. Grosse (*Journal of Modern History*, March).
- Galileo and His Religion. W. L. Doughty (*Modern Churchman*, January).
- The Last Latin Colony, E. T. Salmon (*Classical Quarterly*, January).
- Pre-Hussite Heresy in Bohemia. S. H. Thomson (*English Historical Review*, January).
- Siberia since 1894. A. V. Baikalov (*Slavonic Review*, January).
- The Recognition of Roumanian Independence, 1878-1880 (continued). W. N. Medlicott (*Slavonic Review*, January).
- Foundations of Maygar Society. V. D. Barker (*Slavonic Review*, January).
- New States and Old in Dalmatia. Sir Henry Luke (*Fortnightly Review*, February).
- Ignatyev at Constantinople, 1864-1874, I. B. H. Sumner (*Slavonic Review*, January).
- The Maronite Church of Syria. J. M. T. Barton (*Thought*, March).
- The Last Decade in Japan. G. C. Allen (*Economic History*, January).
- Dutch Guiana: a Problem in Boundaries. Engel Sluiter (*Hispanic American Historical Review*, February).
- The Present Status of the Church in Venezuela. Mary Watters (*Hispanic American Historical Review*, February).

## THE BRITISH EMPIRE

- Æthelwig, Abbot of Evesham, I. R. R. Darlington (*English Historical Review*, January).
- Masons' Wages in Medieval England. D. Knoop and G. P. Jones (*Economic History*, January).
- The Revolt against the Tithe. R. F. Naftel (*Quarterly Review*, January).
- Married Clergy and Pensioned Religious in Norwich Diocese, 1550, I. Geoffrey Baskerville (*English Historical Review*, January).
- Sir Thomas More's "Richard III." A. F. Pollard (*History*, January).
- Thoughts on the British Newspaper, 1622-1932. W. S. Sparrow (*Nineteenth Century*, February).
- The Great Reform Act. N. McL. Rogers (*Dalhousie Review*, January).
- Creassy's Plan for Seizing Panama, with an Introductory Account of British Designs on Panama. Lucia B. Kinnaird (*Hispanic American Historical Review*, February).
- An Early Victorian Business Forecaster in the Woollen Industry. Herbert Heaton (*Economic History*, January).
- Mr. Pepys and the Goldsmith Bankers. R. D. Richards (*Economic History*, January).
- Lord Oxford and Asquith. Algernon Cecil (*Quarterly Review*, January).
- Joseph Chamberlain, the Radical. F. W. Hirst (*Contemporary Review*, February).
- The Decisive Battles of Scotland. J. M. MacLennan (*Scots Review*, February). Culloden.

## Jameson's Dictionary of U. S. History

Edited by J. Franklin Jameson, Ph.D., Litt.D., LL.D.

A compact reference work, containing in dictionary form complete, concise descriptions of the events, places and personages which have contributed to our country's history. Divided into four parts; Part I—Alphabetical Section. Part II—A short map study of territorial development. Part III—A chronology of U. S. history. Part IV—Analytical section (indexed) containing documentary material.

List Price \$9.50. Special Price to Educational Institutions and Libraries \$8.55 net, postpaid.

McKinley Publishing Co.  
1021 Filbert Street, Philadelphia



- Why Halifax Was Founded. W. S. MacNutt (*Dalhousie Review*, January).  
 The Rebellion in Cyprus, 1931. Capt. H. A. Freeman (*Army Quarterly*, January).

## THE GREAT WAR AND ITS PROBLEMS

- The War Memories of Marshal Joffre. (*Army Quarterly*, January).  
 The Collapse of the Russian Army according to Trotsky. Malcolm Burr (*Army Quarterly*, January).  
 Notes on the Palestine Campaign. Maj. A. H. Burne (*Fighting Forces*, February).  
 The Mesopotamian Campaign, 1914-1918: Supply of the British Forces. Maj. Roland Walsh (*Quartermaster Review*, September-October).  
 The Betrayal of Montenegro. Prince Milo of Montenegro (*Nineteenth Century*, February).  
 The Mandates in Syria and Palestine. D. V. Duff (*Quarterly Review*, January).

## THE UNITED STATES AND DEPENDENCIES

- The Navy: Its Contact with Congress. Lt. Comm. C. H. Schmidt (*U. S. Naval Institute Proceedings*, February).  
 Brief Historical Description of the Organization of the War Department General Staff, U.S.A. Maj. Gen. J. L. DeWitt (*Quartermaster Review*, September-October).  
 A New Interpretation of the Domestic Slave System. J. H. Johnston (*Journal of Negro History*, January).  
 American Negro Mohammedans. Pierre Crabites (*Catholic World*, February).  
 Margaret Brent, Gentleman. Eudora R. Richardson (*Thought*, March).  
 The "Scotch Club" of Colonial Georgia. Edith E. MacQueen (*Scots Magazine*, February).  
 The Mainland Colonies in the Eighteenth Century. H. H. Bellot (*History*, January). Historical revision.  
 Virginia and the Cherokee Indian Trade, 1753-1775. W. N. Franklin (*East Tennessee Historical Society Publications*, January).  
 Virginians and Marylanders at Harvard College in the Seventeenth Century. S. E. Morison (*William and Mary College Quarterly Historical Magazine*, January).  
 Washington's Relations to Tennessee and Kentucky. S. M. Wilson (*East Tennessee Historical Society Publications*, January).  
 George Mason, the Statesman. R. W. Moore (*William and Mary College Quarterly Historical Magazine*, January).  
 Nathaniel Gist, Father of Sequoyah. S. C. Williams (*East Tennessee Historical Society Publications*, January).  
 The Pope's First Consul General in the United States. J. F. Thorning (*Thought*, March).  
 The Medical Service in the War of 1812, IV. L. C. Duncan (*Military Surgeon*, February).  
 The Founding of Ste. Genevieve, Missouri. Ida M. Schaaf (*Missouri Historical Review*, January).

- The Presidential Campaign of 1828. Isabel T. Kelsay (*East Tennessee Historical Society Publications*, January).  
 Caleb Cushing and the Treaty of Wanghia, 1844. Ping Chia Kuo (*Journal of Modern History*, March).  
 The Camp Meeting in the Early Life and Literature of the Mid-West. R. L. Shurter (*East Tennessee Historical Society Publications*, January).  
 The Study of Missouri Place-Names at the University of Missouri. R. L. Ramsay (*Missouri Historical Review*, January).  
 Joseph B. McCullagh, X. W. B. Stevens (*Missouri Historical Review*, January).  
 Abiel Leonard, I. F. A. Culmer (*Missouri Historical Review*, January). Justice, Whig leader, etc.  
 The Beginnings of the Railway Movement in East Tennessee. S. J. Folmsbee (*East Tennessee Historical Society Publications*, January).  
 Salt Works in Early Oklahoma. Grant Foreman (*Chronicles of Oklahoma*, December).  
 Frontier Life in Southern Arizona, 1858-1861. W. C. Eaton (*Southwestern Historical Quarterly*, Jan.).  
 Revival Movements in Ante-Bellum North Carolina. G. G. Johnson (*North Carolina Historical Review*, January).  
 A Civil War Boyhood. H. J. W. Burgess (*Atlantic Monthly*, March).  
 Some Observations on Progress in Race Relations prior to and since 1868. B. W. Doyle (*Journal of Negro History*, January).  
 The Downfall of the Radicals in Tennessee. J. A. Sharp (*East Tennessee Historical Society Publications*, January).  
 The North Carolina Public Debt, 1870-1878. B. U. Ratchford (*North Carolina Historical Review*, January).  
 The Political Background of Tennessee's War of the Roses. D. M. Robison (*East Tennessee Historical Society Publications*, January). Gubernatorial contest between Robert L. and Alfred A. Taylor.  
 A Short Account of the Massachusetts Constitutional Convention, 1917-1919. A. P. Loring (*New England Quarterly*, Supplement).  
 Writings in Tennessee History, 1931-1932. Laura E. Luttrell (*East Tennessee Historical Society Publications*, January).

The University of Maine Studies, Second Series, No. 26, is devoted to a study by Elizabeth Ring of *The Progressive Movement of 1912 and Third Party Movement of 1924 in Maine* (Orono, Me., price 35 cents). The traditional Republican complexion of Maine politics had been retained from 1854 until 1910 when the Democrats captured the legislature. In 1912 the Republicans and Progressives combined to elect state officers in the September election, but separated in the November election and lost to the Democrats as a result of the split. The Third Party of 1924 made but a slight appeal to Maine voters, only six per cent of the electors voting for La Follette. The Progressive vote, Miss Ring shows in a series of maps, came largely from the rural counties, while the La Follette vote was found mainly in the cities.

# THE KNOWLTON WORK-BOOK IN AMERICAN HISTORY

By DANIEL C. KNOWLTON

Says *The Historical Outlook*: "Of the dozen or more work-books in American history which have been published in the last two or three years, that by Professor Knowlton is, in many respects, the most outstanding. . . . This latest contribution by Professor Knowlton to the teaching of American history in secondary schools is certain to be of great value to every teacher who desires a work-book that has been carefully prepared and tested by an experienced teacher."

**T**HIS is a practical work-book for senior high school students. It contains carefully graded problems, suggestive questions, new type objective tests, a complete series of outline maps, a variety of map problems, and adequate illustrations. The method of presentation calls for extensive individual work, permits a wide range of answers according to the material used and the varying capacities of the students, and aims particularly toward a thorough preparation for college entrance examinations. Accordingly, the book is adapted to many different uses and methods of teaching. 9 1/2" x 8", 336 pages, \$1.00.

We shall be glad to send you more detailed information

**THE CENTURY CO.**

PUBLISHERS OF THE NEW CENTURY DICTIONARY

353 Fourth Avenue, New York, N.Y.

2126 Prairie Avenue, Chicago, Ill.

## STRAIGHT THINKING

OUR leaders, of every political and philosophical persuasion, join in calling for straight thinking. Wisely they look to you in the schools for its genesis. Your classroom work and the textbooks you select will determine to a great degree whether our high school graduates will be equipped for straight thinking or straight-down-the-rut thinking.

Three books which, in their respective fields, combine scholarly integrity, detached viewpoint, and awareness of classroom conditions are listed below. You can find for your students no better guides to straight thinking along historical, economic, and social lines.

**MODERN HISTORY** by *Carl Becker*

**EVERYDAY ECONOMICS** by *C. C. Janzen and O. W. Stephenson*

**SOCIAL ECONOMY** by *Ezra Bowen*

**SILVER, BURDETT AND COMPANY**

NEW YORK

NEWARK

BOSTON

CHICAGO

SAN FRANCISCO

